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ABSTRACT

The conference proceedings include 62 papers on aspects of language teaching and learning, organized in seven sections: looking back, looking forward (history of language teaching, future directions); curriculum design (curriculum development, competency-based curricula, content-based instruction, global issues in curriculum and evaluation, instructional materials, business English); computers and language learning (creating and selecting software, learning strategies, language laboratory use, computer network use, scope and limitation of computer-assisted language learning); classrooms and culture (intercultural/interpersonal communication, student behavior norms, learning styles of Japanese, Japanese student nonverbal behavior, sociocultural patterns and change); bilingualism and children (nurture and nature, early English-as-a-Second-Language acquisition, age factors and language proficiency, K-12 Japanese second language instruction); in the classroom (fluency development, learner development, a survey about Japanese teachers and class activities, identity and beliefs in language learning, structured group encounters, self-evaluation videotaping, student journals, reading comprehension, vocabulary development, shared inquiry, literature appreciation, reading activities, peer journals, writing instruction, student publishing, oral history, drama, language rhythm, German instruction, class size); and testing and evaluation (English entrance examinations, questionnaire design, oral testing, listening comprehension, interpreting teacher and course evaluations). Individual papers contain references. (MSE)

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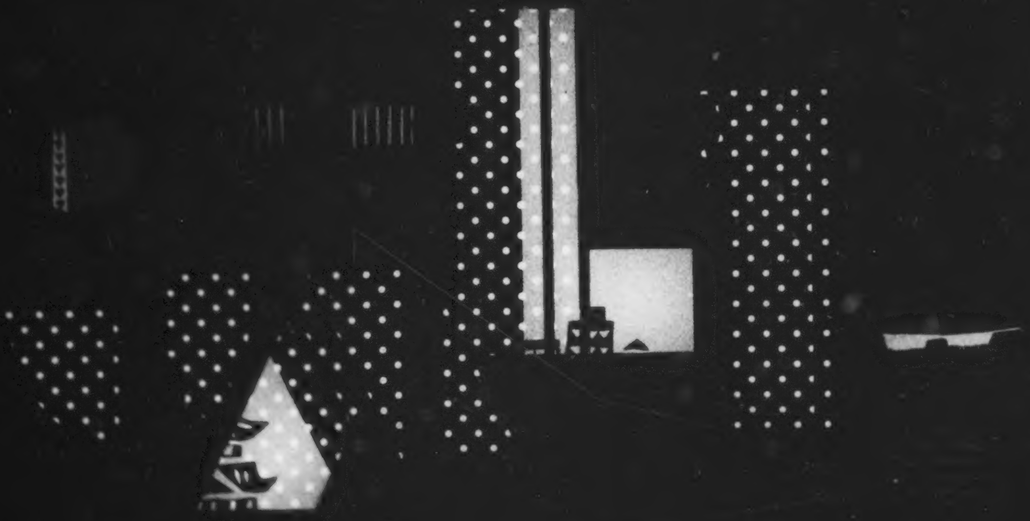

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INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON
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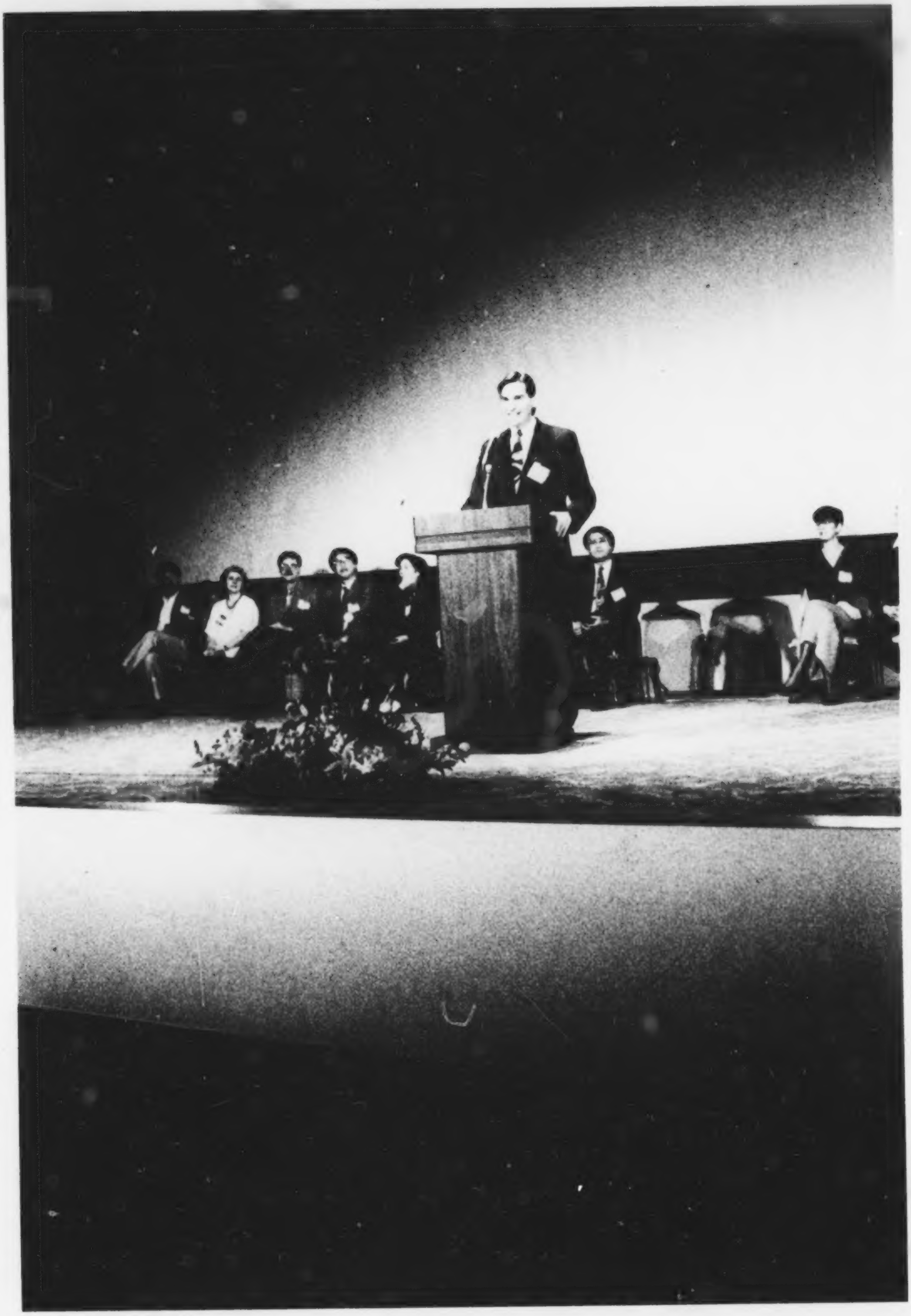

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On JALT 95:
Curriculum and Evaluation

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on Language Teaching/Learning
Nagoya, Japan, November, 1995

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We would also like to thank the people of the City of Nagoya, as well as the prefecture government, for their wonderful hospitality in welcoming us into their midst, and for all of the assistance they offered us in making our conference a success.

Finally, a special thanks to Guy Modica, 1995 Conference Site Chair; and David Kluge, 1995 Conference Program Chair. Their tireless organizing skills were responsible for a smoothly run, thoroughly enjoyable professional conference.

We would like to list all of the names of the scores of other volunteers who also assisted us, but unfortunately space does not allow us this luxury. Be assured that your efforts helped make this book possible.

Table of Contents

Preface

Section One: Looking Back, Looking Forward

2—*My Story of Language Teaching*
Andrew Wright
6—*Change in Education: Historical and Social Perspectives*
Thomas L. Simmons, Torkil Christensen, Dawn Yonally, & Tadashi Shiozawa
13—*Training and Development: Possible Pathways Forward*
Andrew Barfield, Clive Lovelock, Kevin Mark, Junko Okada & Jan Visscher

Section Two: Curriculum Design

20—*Competency Assessment in Curriculum Renewal*
Ian Harrison,Francis Johnson, Christopher Candlin, Anthony Green, David Nunan, & Charles Smith
26—*The Evolving of a Curriculum*
Hiroshi Abe, Kyle Perrin, & Dennis Woolbright
30—*Managing Curriculum Change*
Christopher Candlin, Ian Harrison, & Mercedes Mont
34—*Designing and Teaching a Content-Based Course*
Jerald Halvorson & Robert E. Gettings
38—*Global Issues: Curriculum and Evaluation*
Kip Cates, Carl Dusthimer, Heather Jones, Anchalee Chayanuvat, & Michael Higgens
42—*Language Textbooks: Help of Hindrance?*
Jane Crawford
46—*Materials Design for Self-Directed Learning*
Nicholas Marshall & Marion Delarche
52—*Developing Business English Materials for Japan*
Ian Harrison, Thomas Healy, & R. Tapp

Section Three: Computers and Language Learning

58—*Computers, Language Learning, and the Four Skills*
Steve McGuire, Albert Dudley, Patricia Thornton, Paul Jaquith, Jay Lundelius, & Steve Tripp

66—*Creating Your Own Software—the Easy Way*
Steve McGuire & Marion M. Flaman
69—*Multimedia for EFL Learners: Implications for Teaching and Learning*
L.M. Dryden
73—*The Effects of Learning Strategies in a CALL Laboratory*
Yuka Shigemitsu & Hiroshi Tanabe
77—*An Adjuct Model in the Computer Classroom*
Katharine Isbell
80—*Using Computer Networks to Facilitate Communication*
Tadashi Shiozawa, Hiromi Imamura, Steven Briss, & Shuji Ozeki
91—*CALL: Its Scope and Limits*
Frank Berberich

Section Four: Classrooms and Culture

96—*Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication*
Kensaku Yoshida
104—*Classroom Cultures: East Meets West*
Dominic Cogan
108—*Laying Down the Law*
Gregory Bornmann
112—*Student Behavior: Whose Norms?*
Stephen M. Ryan
116—*What Makes a Good Language Lesson?*
Stephen M. Ryan
120—*Learning Styles of Japanese Students*
Naoko Ozeki
129—*A Longitudinal Study on JSL Learners' Nonverbal Behavior*
Yutaka Ikeda & Tomoko Ikeda
133—*Japanese Students' Non-Verbal Responses*
Ian Nakamura
138—*Language, Social Meaning, and Social Change: The Challenge for Teachers*
Sandra Savignon

Section Five: Bilingualism and Children

146—*The Nurture and Nature of Bilingual Acquisition*
Laural Kamada, Liu Xing-Ying, Willeta Silva, & Mary Goebel Noguchi
151—*Early English Acquisition in the EFL Situation*
Soo-Wong Ahn
156—*Age Factors and Language Proficiency in Child SLA*
Kazuko Yumoto

167—Development of Framework in K-12 Japanese as a Second Language
Yuriko K. Kite, David Nunan, Suzuko Nishihara, Anita Gesling, & Sumiko Shimizu

Section Six: In the Classroom

174—Fluency Development
James Dean Brown
180—Learner Development: Three Designs
Yuko Naito, Sonia Yoshitake, Takao Koromogawa, & Morio Hamada
186—Desirable Japanese Teachers and Classroom Activities: A Survey
Takako Ishida
190—Identity and Beliefs in Language Learning
Tim Murphey
193—Japanese Language Learning Through Structured Group Encounters
Shin'ichi Hayashi, Yukari Saiki, & Takako Ishida
198—Learner Self-Evaluated Videoing
Tim Murphey & Tom Kenny
203—The Learning Journal: An Aid to Reinforcement and Evaluation
Sophia Wisener
206—Using Texts to Understand Texts
Steven Brown
210—Vocabulary and Reading: Teaching and Testing
David Begler & Alan Hunt
215—Research on Vocabulary Retention
Guy Kellogg
219—Adapting the Shared Inquiry Method to the Japanese Classroom
Carol Browning, Jerald Halvorson, & Denise Ahlquist
223—Literature: Written English? Oral English? or Both?
Linda Donan
226—Adding Magic to an EFL Reading Program by Using Children's Literature
Linda J. Viswat & Linda C. Rowe
230—Reading Activities in the Communicative Classroom
Gregory Strong
233—Cross-Border Peer Journals in EFL
David George
236—Motivating Students to Write: Activities from Three Different Classrooms
Midori Kimura, Keiko Kikuchi, & Joyce Maeda
240—Student Publishing: The Value of Controlled Chaos
Brad Visgatis & Tamara Swenson
247—Oral History: A New Look at an Old Subject
Barbara Valentine Dunkley

249—Invent Your Own Soap Opera
Julia Dudas & Andrew Wright
253—Metric Conversion: Acquiring English Rhythm
Margaret Sharkey & Eiko Ushida
263—Allein Gegen Alle Deutschunterricht in der Großklasse (Problems of Teaching German in Large Classes)
Alfred Gerhmann
265—Constructive Methods of Dealing with Large Classes
Thomas L. Simmons, Dawn Yonally, & Edward Haig

Section Seven: Testing and Evaluation

272—English Language Entrance Examinations in Japan: Problems and Solutions
James Dean Brown
283—Reliability and a Learner-Style Questionnaire
Dale T. Griffee
292—Does It Work? Evaluating Language Learning Tasks
Rod Ellis
295—Communicative Oral Testing
Marion Delarche & Nicholas Marshall
302—Evaluation of Gestures in Non-Verbal Communication
Barry O'Sullivan
306—Our Experiments in Oral Communication Tests
Shuichi Yonezawa
313—Simulations: A Tool for Testing "Virtual Reality" in the Language Classroom
Randall Davis
319—Evaluation of Listening-Focused Classes
Yoshinobu Niwa & Kazuo Iwata
324—Interpreting Teacher and Course Evaluations
T.R. Honkomp

331—Bilingual Abstracts

Preface

A professional conference is many things, but perhaps most importantly it is about the state of the art of the profession. People get together, discuss and present on what they are doing in the context of their avowed calling in life, share experiences, and ultimately (ideally), share knowledge and expertise with each other in the hope that such sharing will lead to the overall betterment of the profession to which they have committed a major portion their lives.

What better way to acknowledge (if not celebrate) this professional commitment than to publish a volume such as *On JALT 95: Curriculum and Evaluation*? What better way to talk to our peers than to present to them a comprehensive cross section of what we are doing to contribute our professional sphere? We can think of no better way than this volume. We, the editors, are proud to present to our peers this wonderful cross section, and we are hopeful that it will not only represent to JALT what we are capable of as professional language teachers, but that it also gives to the profession something that will be of lasting value.

Of course, no conference is a representation of the totally "new." *State-of-the-Art* always means the foundations upon which the contemporary structure rests—that is, the past, present and future; in practical terms, what works and continues to work, why it's still applicable and how it might be changed, and the implications of that change. In this sense, this volume represents only a state of inquiry, or a state of professional information exchange that contributes to the ongoing, evolving professional Conversation.

This volume was not edited with the idea that it would in any way be "definitive." There is an uneven mixture of information that covers old as well as new ground, and we knew from the beginning that it could not be designed to present a single unified view. Our profession, with its rich diversity of views, its very aliveness, defies the definitive. The articles in this volume will bear this out: Some may appear to be contradictory with others of what the field is about in terms of research and practicality.

Nevertheless, how well the articles all began to interleave. Theory merged with practice. Practice reflected theory. Theorists showed themselves to be practitioners because they were bridging the gap to practice, and the practitioners were reaching out to theory. As we edited this volume, we discovered that the articles—every one of them—were small facets that reflected the professional whole.

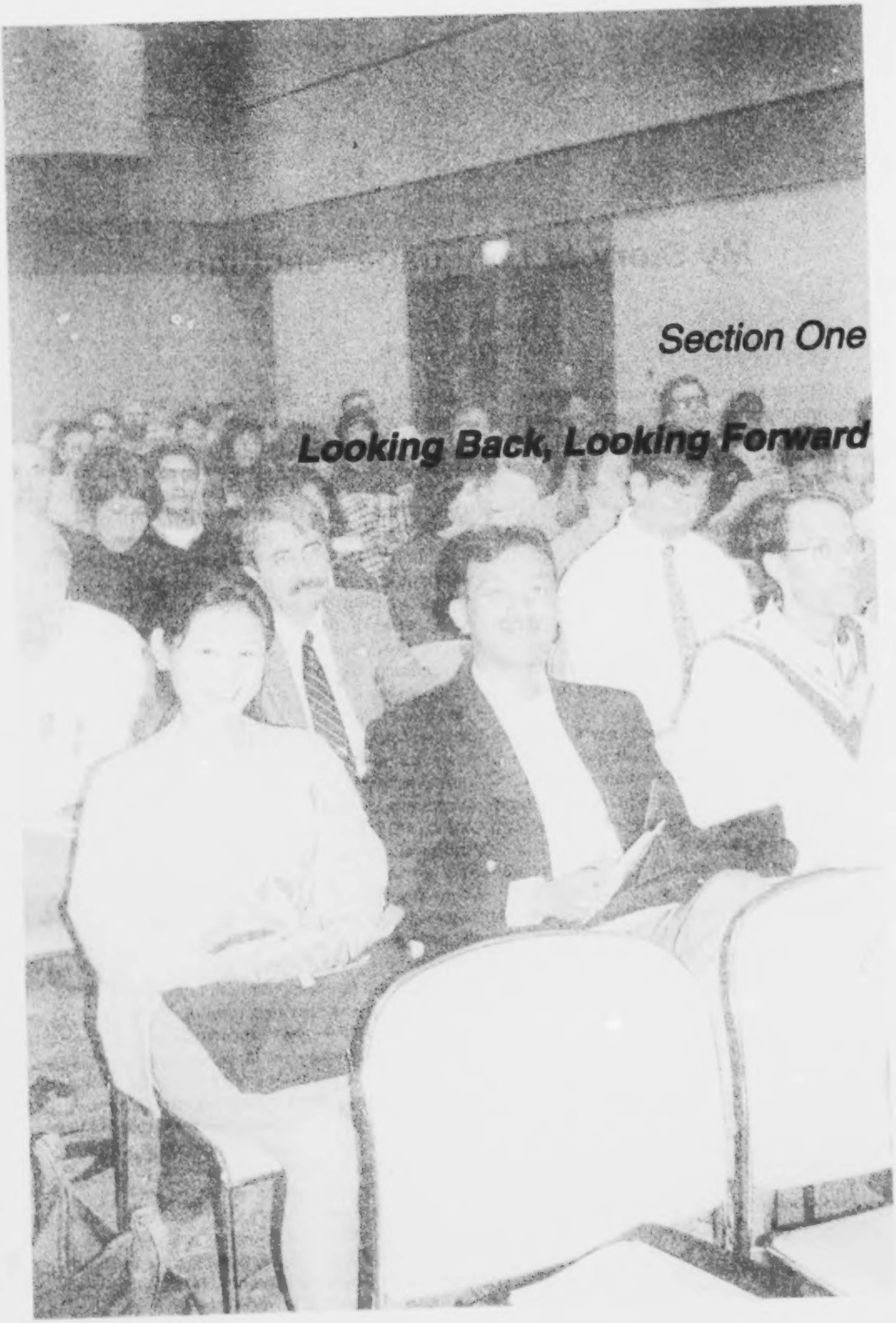
The overall organization of *On JALT 95: Curriculum and Evaluation* reflects this overlap. We begin with an Introductory section, "Looking Back, Looking Forward," that sets the tone, and then move into the first part of the theme—Curriculum. We end with "Testing and Evaluation." Everything between stresses both parts of the theme that bridges the gap between the theoretical and the practical. Every article stresses the thinker as a doer, the doer as a thinker, the teacher as both thinker and doer.

We had thought to write an over-arching Preface to this volume in an effort to weave all of the threads into a tapestry. However, in the compilation of the works herein presented, as they all began naturally to cluster into the areas that we ultimately placed them, it became clear to us that further commentary was unnecessary. The articles speak well for themselves and, indeed, speak well of what JALT's annual conferences are all about: teachers talking to teachers, sharing ideas and techniques, trading wisdom that ultimately benefits us all—teachers and students alike.

Gene van Troyer, Steve Cornwell, and Hiromi Morikawa, editors

Section One

Looking Back, Looking Forward



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My Story of Language Teaching

Andrew Wright
The British Council

In this plenary I described my 50 years of learning and teaching foreign languages. Each experience described was chosen to highlight emerging social values and their effect on language teaching ideas and materials.

My Story of Language Teaching

I cannot give a grand overview of language teaching in the last forty years but I can describe my own personal experience of it. I hope this will be of interest to colleagues who might like to compare it with their own experience and see if there are any implications in this comparison which will help their teaching now and in the future.

My theme is that we can only say whether a bicycle is better or worse than a car when we know what we want to do with it and in what sort of circumstances. And we can only evaluate language teaching methods in the same way.

I will describe my own experiences of learning and teaching foreign languages in terms of:

- values and perceptions (what people think is important, for example, some people have the idea of the student as a complex, thinking and feeling person and other people perceive the student as someone who should be a grateful and respectful receiver of our information)
- aims (arising from our values, what we hope the student will learn and become)
- context (the immediate context of the classroom and its resources and also the broader context of society with its resources and values and pressures)
- students (their interests, needs, stresses, hopes, fears, rights)

When I was eleven (1948) and starting to learn French at school I was told that I was very lucky to have Dr. Macgrar as a teacher. People said he was a distinguished academic. In those days grammar school education was grammar education; the aim was to teach us the grammar of the various disciplines. This was difficult for many of us to learn because we did not have the necessary interest or habits of thought.

I don't know if Dr. Macgrar ever noticed our difficulties. From the first day Dr. Macgrar's preoccupation was with his verbs and tenses, etc., as seen in French literature. We crawled along the lines from word to word, from construction to construction. Studying a living language was evidently second best to studying a dead one, like Latin, but every attempt was made by Dr. Macgrar to kill French off so that it would be a reasonable substitute. After all, his main aim was to discipline our minds. Those were the times when a disciplined and classical education was considered the necessary training for a ruling elite to run the British Empire.

By the way, the last sentence I was asked to translate in my Latin class was, "The soldier left by the South Gate." I never translated it. That was a turning point in my education. I said to myself, "This is going to be hard work. I don't even know who this soldier is. I don't know why he is leaving and why he should leave by the South Gate." It seemed a ludicrous way of spending my energy. So I refused even to translate it. I was beaten on the backside with a stick, another part of the training required for running the British Empire, but I still refused to translate the sentence unless they could tell me who the soldier was and why he was leaving and why by the South Gate.

I was put into the bottom class of the school and another teacher of French was found for us who, they thought, might be able to get through the thick skulls of the boys in 2D.

This teacher had learned about Direct

Method teaching and felt that its reference to desks, doors and windows would be more relevant than a study of grammar in French literature. But what he produced for me was my first conscious experience of surrealism. He pointed with great solemnity at the door and said, "C'est une porte." Years later I came across the painting by Magritte who had written under his painting of a pipe, "Ce n'est pas une pipe." Ionesco wrote a surrealist play based on his observations of English lessons, in which people endlessly ask, "Hello, how"s your wife?" ...or something similar. My new teacher's values presumably were that if I picked up any French words it must be a good thing even if it was only the words for objects in a room. He did not give value to my being a thinking and feeling creature trying to make sense of things.

At the same time in my life I was discovering drawing. The art teacher encouraged me. He showed me wonderful pictures and talked with such enthusiasm and feeling about the spirit of them. He showed joy when I drew the dogs at home and the trees, streams and rocks. And he always talked about the spirit of things and about avoiding triviality, and stereotyping and glib and showy techniques. If I did a weak drawing of a tree, for example, he would grip my shoulder and say, "Bones, Wright! Bones!" And then he might take me to a tree in the school grounds and slap its trunk and say, "Bones, Wright!" I felt the power of his analogy; he left it to me to apply it in whatever way I could. He never, in five years, said I was right or wrong, his criteria were only those of the qualities of feeling and degrees of success in expressing what I felt and thought. He did not select minor bits of famous paintings for me to copy nor did he make me practice drawing straight lines, curves, circles or other shapes, nor did he make me apply lifeless rules. He encouraged me to look at the full complexity of life and slowly to grow in my understanding of how to sort out important structures and shapes and tones. With his encouragement, I discovered more and more about drawing and seeing and understanding and feeling and communicating. My line became more fluent, and my sense of form and composition became richer. Above all, I was concerned about the whole and not the minor details.

My art teacher's values in life included the idea that the world is full of triviality and that we humans must strive to discover grander meanings in it or through it or behind it, not just that we should get the grander meanings given to us but that we take on the responsibilty for searching for them.

What a contrast in values and perceptions between the two teachers! The one representing the general notion of what education should be: a concern with disciplining boys' minds and the other idiosynchratically concerned with introducing me to myself, to life and to ideas. I was able to respond to only one of them.

I failed the public examinations at the age of sixteen, in French and English. I passed in Art and I went to Art School in London.

It was the 1950s. It was a time when societies in the West thought that universal solutions to social problems and needs could be found based on science and logic.

The housing needs of the city poor were analysed, their small, terraced houses were pulled down and great blocks of apartments built for them. Look at all the grass around the building for them to look at!

The audio-lingual approach in language teaching, with its prescriptive bit by bit build up belonged to this same period.

Once more my own value system and needs did not coincide with the values and perceptions of the times and my art school days, in consequence, were largely a waste of time.

Cezanne, the French painter whose searching mind analysed the forms and colours of landscapes, still lifes and nudes was the model we were given. However, my teachers did not seem to appreciate that Cezanne was actually concerned with the picture as a whole and not its parts.

After my time at the art school I managed to get a job as an English Conversation Assistant in France in spite of the fact that I could only speak three words of French, "oui", "non" and "camping." My interviewer, learning that I could draw, decided I was bi-lingual and sent me to France. Everything I have done since that interview has been determined, in part, by that interviewer's decision! (Including this article!) Once more, thank goodness, I had come in contact with someone whose values and perceptions did not belong to the dominant values in society at that time.

I was an English assistant in France for two years and became a fluent speaker of French. It is ironic, isn't it, that I should teach English in France, given my educational history?

My time in France was over and it was the early sixties. It was in the early sixties that Britain realised it was in a mess and could no longer blame the war. Britain had lost its Empire and nobody needed preparing for it. Now Britain had to survive in a hard commercial world. We needed British people who could communicate in foreign languages...and why not start with children? Why not start with all children in the country and not just a ruling elite, after all this was the time when the socialist Welfare State was established.

In the early 60s there was still a widespread belief that it was possible to produce global solutions for social problems. The audio-visual method was going to be the answer to society's language learning needs.

In 1962 I returned to England and got a job as an illustrator of a new audio-visual course for the teaching of French in Primary Schools (1962) which was going to be tried out on 16,000 children from the ages of 8 to 16. The Nuffield Foundation's Primary French Project was established to produce the perfect method...and it would, surely, with all that money and research.

We produced stories and pictures to illustrate the new language for the children and we gave them dialogues based on the stories for them to practise the language. Friendly stories, lots of practice and as few mistakes as possible. That was the method arising out of the aims which in turn reflected society's demand at the time.

But times were changing again. In the mid to late sixties people were becoming disillusioned with global, rational answers. Hippies were growing their hair longer and longer and universities were beginning to feel the challenge of insurrection and the Beatles were singing with Liverpudlian accents. This was the time in the West in the late 60s when there was "flower power:" a lot of mainly young people began to protest that love was the answer to personal and social problems. Flowers became symbolic of this movement. Memorable newspaper photographs showed young people putting flowers in the barrels of soldiers' guns. People were beginning to say, "We don't want global solutions. We want our individuality recognised."

About this time two academics from the University of Edinburgh, Julian Dakin and Tony Howatt examined the materials we had produced for our Primary French course and pointed out that our children were hardly ever required to use the first person subject pronoun, "je," and when they did say "je" they were not referring to themselves but to the character they were acting in the story dialogues. Our children hardly ever talked about themselves!

Dakin's and Howatt's observations reflected this new emphasis on the importance of the individual. Course writers and language teachers began to respond to social change in values and perceptions. And our team of materials producers began to look at what children actually like doing, and we began to take a broader view of what a rich, and balanced education might be for a child. Trivial stories and dialogues merely devised for teaching French now seemed wrong.

During the same years there was a project in Birmingham for teaching English called Concept 7-9 committed to developing language in the context of a more general development of concepts and skills of communication. Concept 7-9 developed the first examples of information gap games. Children sat in pairs, each child having different information, and they worked together to exchange and complete the information.

Were information gap activities better than what we were doing in the audio visual method when we asked the children to repeat and learn dialogues in trivial stories and were they better than Dr. Macgrar's grammar translation method? Information gap activities manifested a different way of looking at the child, with different values, leading to different aims and then to different methods and techniques to achieve those aims.

About 1972 I was asked to produce a course for teaching English as a foreign language to children. I was determined to make it the first foreign language topic-based course available to teachers and their children. For the first time, my own way of looking at the world coincided with a general trend in society as a whole (I thought at the time). It was at that time that the notional/functional description of language was being drafted by Wilkins, Trim and Van Ek; once again, reflecting concern for the needs of individuals in real, everyday situations. Together with a primary school teacher, David Betteridge and a linguist, Nicolas Hawkes, we wrote and tried out *Kaleidoscope* (1974). We had stories and dialogues, too, but above all we had a serious study of topics such as visual perception, in which the children had to experiment with ideas and experiences as well as develop their English. In the unit on visual perception the children studied visual illusions but they also studied the way in which various types of map projection can distort our understanding of size and position. Our values included the idea that children are rich, thinking and feeling people and that we have an enormous responsibility to help them to develop as all-round learners not merely to "pick up" an inert collection of words and structures in a foreign language. We cannot say that *Kaleidoscope* was better than the method of Dr. Macgrar or the audio-visual courses available at the time. We were trying to achieve very different things.

By the way, the publisher of *Kaleidoscope* soon became very fed up with us. The problem was that their values and ours did not coincide. They wanted to sell a lot of copies and we wanted to offer interested teachers a set of materials which represented a very particular set of values, aims and methods not available at that time in any other published materials. The director of the publishing house told us, "I will allow you 15% innovation!" We ignored his demand and produced alternative material, which didn't sell very well!

My life in language teaching has been too long to drag you through every time values have changed and my work has changed in consequence. But I cannot omit the huge impact that the humanistics movement has had on language teaching. During the eighties there were more and more people who said, "Students are people and they are rich, thinking and feeling people. They are our greatest resource. Help them to make use of all their qualities in learning a language and, most importantly, help them to share with others in the group so that their class becomes a supportive community of learners."

If the teacher believes in such values, then he or she will want to use and will use well the techniques which derive from such values. If the teacher fundamentally doesn't believe in them, he or she will kill off these techniques (and the students' goodwill). The values and the spirit of the way the teacher works are so important.

In my teacher training work I once saw a teacher ask forty students, one by one, what their fathers' jobs were. She didn't ask about their mothers' jobs and she showed absolutely no interest in any of the answers. But at the end of it she thought that she could say to other teachers, "I am using the communicative, humanistic approach."

In the last ten years I have had the good fortune to work with teachers in many countries. This has allowed me to see the way in which deeply held human values are far more important in determining what happens in the classroom than the methods which the teacher is using. In one country for example, the teacher said to me in the tea break, "When I walk into the classroom I represent 2000 years of learning. I expect total respect."

In another country I repeatedly asked questions of the fifty teachers with whom I was working and repeatedly received fifty sweet smiles, but no answers. At the break one of the teachers who was familiar with the West said, "In our culture it is regarded as inappropriate for an individual to speak out an opinion. We believe that this would undermine society." And yet they had employed me to come to their country to tell them about the latest communicative methods based on humanistic assumptions about the importance of the individual. What I fundamentally believed about people was not shared with most of the teachers I was working with.

In another country I was asked to talk to more than one hundred teachers. I began and one of the teachers dropped her pen in front of me. She couldn't get out of her place, so, of course, I picked it up and gave it to her. At the next tea break the local trainers asked me why I had done this. I knew I was facing one of those huge gaps that can sometimes open up between people from different cultures. I replied, "Because she had dropped it." One of the trainers said, "But she is just a teacher and you are an international expert and you picked up her pen." I replied, "But I am the servant of the people I am working for. If I can help them in any way then I want to do so, even if it means picking up a pen for one of them." At the end of the day one of the trainers said to me, "You make it very difficult for us. In this country if you become a teacher you are somebody. You walk down your village street and you are the teacher; you may be very poorly paid but you are the teacher. If you get a job in the grammar school you really are somebody. If you become a teacher trainer or a lecturer in a university you are in the clouds. If you are a university professor you are regarded almost as a God. You are an international expert. You have flown a very long way to be here with us and you say you are the servant of that woman. Where does that leave us poor little teacher trainers?"

It is in conversations like these and through classroom observation that I have realised that methods and techniques cannot be evaluated separately from the deeply held human values they represent. In broad terms, each society and culture has different values and aims with its own sets of contradictions and directions of change. But when it comes down to the classroom it is the teacher and his or her students whose values and aims matter the most. It is quite possible for humanistic values to be given great importance in a society and yet for an individual teacher not to share or even understand these values. She might use a course (methods and techniques) based on humanistic values but carry out the activities in an authoritarian, unsympathetic and uncommunicative manner.

How do your deeply held values about

people and society relate to the aims and methods of the textbooks and course materials that you are using? How do they relate to the values of the students (each is different), your colleagues, the parents, the inspectorate and the government? How does their variety affect your work?

Given the fact that there is so much variety and, in some situations very rapid change and conflict, it is curious that, in studies and evaluations of language teaching, reference is so often made to methods and not to value and purpose. "This method is better than that method." It's like listening to a crowd of people arguing over which is the better means of transport, a bicycle or a car.

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Change in Education: Historical and Social Perspectives

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Educational Reform Past and Present

Horio Teruhisa, one of Japan's foremost education historians, takes a dim view of educational reform in Japan. In 1986 he stated,

> At present we find ourselves in an age of educational reform. The government talks of it increasingly, the Teachers' Union draws up plans, parents call for change, and students themselves protest in their own ways against the competitive, over-controlled nature of school life. It remains a fact, however the education in Japan is riddled with difficult problems: violence against teachers, school-phobia, dropping out and bullying among pupils, to name a few. To control their classes teachers also resort to violence; thus corporal punishment is a daily occurrence. Text books are controlled by strict screening, teachers are deprived of their freedom and autonomy, and classes are too large to be manageable. . . . The problem is aggravated moreover, by the severe competition in university entrance examinations, which stifles any natural interest or spontaneity in the classroom .(Horio, 1986, pp. 31-36)

By December, 1995, Horio, (Interview, 1995) stated that he actually believes the situation is worse than it was in 1986.

The entire education system which has been developing since the middle 19th century has undergone three major periods of change: the Meiji Era reforms, the immediate post-war reforms and the retrenchment of the centralisation that typified the Meiji Era structure (Horio, 1986; 1988). At the current time, the changes that effect language education are part of a continuous process of restructuring that resembles the strategies of the industrial sector (Horio, 1986; Interview, 1995; Totuska, personal interviews, 1993, 1994). This article will give some structural and historical background and will address the process that is required for effective change as well as report on the overall change in language education itself.

Change in education requires the participation of the classroom teachers (Hall & Hord, 1987). This arguably requires a degree of teacher autonomy, an essential aspect of professionalism. Inagaki (1994) describes teaching as a profession. However, the concept of professionalism has no historical tradition in Japan prior to the modern era (Amano, 1990) and its growth continues to prove difficult. The National Council on Education Reform did not even mention the idea of teacher autonomy in its report in 1986.

Major reforms initiated in 1947 could have given Japan an education system that would prepare Japan to take its place among the democratic countries of the world. What has happened since then is that the central government has abrogated regional control and popular participation (Horio, 1988; Ienaga, 1993/94; "Japan's schools," 1990; Beer, 1984) and actively discouraged or prevented teachers from actually doing any thing more than disseminating the content at the required pace as the individual students' needs are left out of the pedagogical concerns. The Monbusho (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture) decides curriculum, texts, evaluation, and teacher training. Inagaki has this to say, "Professional bodies have hardly ever been encouraged to participate actively in reform efforts" (1993).

The Meiji government was the primary authority in creating the new education system and for this reason the relatively greater organised central authority of the state has displaced or perhaps more accurately, retarded professional development. The modernisation of professional education was a political endeavour from the beginning, controlled by the government in power and attempted change as a result has been from the top down. This aspect of the education systems here in Japan has not changed in more than 100 years (Horio, interview, 1995).

Evaluating the product of change continues on the international stage as an exercise in public relations rather than real evaluative efforts. The entrance exams typically imposed at virtually every step of the education stairway have been used by the international press to provide Japan's education with a high profile. However, poor validity and unequal comparisons have been exposed to the degree that there is little if any substance to the boast that international comparisons can demonstrate superior education (Bracey, 1991, 1993; Westbury, 1992). In fact, in 1991, a spokesperson for the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) the primary testing body for these international comparisons dealt with the problems of technical variation by saying, "We can only hope that the tests are equally unfair to most cultures." ("Technical Issues", April, 1991).

According to Mizoue and Inoue (1993), recent changes have led to the deterioration of the teacher certification process. Shiina and Chonan (1993) note that the number of new teachers entering education and placement rates are quickly declining and maintain that the decreasing number of students, uncompetitive pay, and decreasing prestige contribute to these problems. Mizoue and Inoue, (1993) point out that there is a decreased need for teachers, a decreased attraction for teaching as a career, decreased pay for teachers and there is an increased number of education programmes that last a greater amount of time and require a great deal more of the students. The greater skill and increased educational demands are thus not reflected in status or salary.

Yamamoto Akio (1989), the director of the Research Laboratory of Resources Utilisation at the Tokyo Institute of Technology in Yokohama, gave an overall review of the shortage of research funding and the types of funding available and the problems encountered in acquiring funds. He made note of the downturn in funding overall and the restrictions that hamstring the need for additional staff and the growing academic population that is placing a greater demand on an already inadequate system. He also points out what is certainly not unique to Japan, salaries of the faculty are less than their counterparts in industries. Assertions about the lack of research and contribution to international research may also be found in the analysis of publications. Of articles published in the 3,300 journals in the Science Citation Index, Japan compares inadequately with other industrialised nations contributing only about 8% of the total (Gibbs, 1995).

Real change is seriously hampered by

parochialism. Over the years, a series of articles have chronicled the continuing isolation of higher education through closed hiring practices wherein universities fill faculty positions with their own graduates and scholars from overseas are considered temporary guests rather than colleagues ("Fair play," 1985; "Too few."1989; Findlay-Kaneko, 1995). Geller (1990) observes that it is nearly impossible for non-Japanese academics to get tenure in Japan. He puts it plainly: "[W]hy does anyone think top foreign scientists will be interested in working in temporary posts in a far-away country where the only available career path is getting the boot?"

Nagai (1971, pp. 249-250) and Amano (1990) chronicle the budgetary control placed on private and public education. That financial support is highly sought after as is the lower tax bracket that comes with certain categories of status. The money comes with strings attached and much can be controlled by the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture. Much of the control is mandated through "guidelines" that are in fact directives (Findlay-Kaneko, 1995). Power over education was not in the hands of educators in the late 19th century through 1945—it was, and still is a political dominion.

The Attributes of Successful Changes

There is extensive literature on change in education that shows that whether it takes place at the institutional or the national level, innovation is hardly a bit of rescheduling, new materials and a peptalk. More specifically, curriculum change involves a teacher's ability to understand how any innovation is to be used, why it is to be used, or how an innovation may fail (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin and Hall, 1987). But more often than not the classroom teacher is left out of the planning, prevented or discouraged from contributing constructive input, deprived of the necessary in-service training, and denied preparation time needed to handle change (Candlin, 1993; Nunan, 1993). This section introduces research that examines the styles of curriculum and administrative change and comments on some implications for Japanese school settings.

Factors for a Successful Change

Berman and McLaughlin (1977; 1978) examined characteristics of new educational projects and how school districts managed educational innovations, educational methods, resource levels, implementation strategies, school climate and leadership, teacher attributes, and district management capacity and support They learned that methods, resources and expenditures had a minor effect on the predictability of success. But, teacher empowerment, utilisation of the local expertise and creativity, the quality of leadership, the teachers' attributes and community and administrative support were paramount in predicting project outcomes and duration.

Since the choice of educational methods and resources available determine outcomes and continuation to only a small and limited extent, language curriculums should not overemphasise the way languages are taught. They should focus on the overall quality of language curriculum, the relationships between teachers and administrators and the teachers' freedom and ability to function professionally.

An interesting aspect of the Berman and McLaughlin research is that ambitious and demanding innovations promoted teacher change and teacher continuation of project methods without causing unmanageable implementation problems or diminishing gains in student performance. This suggests that if the curriculum change should take place, it should be a rather drastic change, because this marked change promotes professional development of the teacher and improves the quality of teaching.

A growing problem that complicates successful change is reliance on transient and overworked faculty. Adjunct faculty who are unable to employ the proper attention needed in improving learning gains are categorically, underpaid, unsupported and uninvolved in the curriculum. Nagai (1971) noted that since the early part of this century, the use of adjunct faculty to cut expenditures been a leading problem adversely effecting all of education in Japan. More recently, Shiozawa, Simmons and Noda (1993) have delineated the problems inherent in the growing use of adjunct faculty (full-time teachers of limited duration and part-time teachers) including exclusion from the administrative and creative process as well as the general destabilising nature of their employment which interferes in long-term commitment to their professional roles.

Candlin (1993) emphasised the teachers' role in change innovation, saying there must a payoff in terms of career improvement. Placing student outcomes and standards of competence on the teachers' shoulders and then holding them responsible is pointless unless the teachers receive professional dividends.

Change Facilitator Styles

A change facilitator is a person working directly with people who are expected to implement change in the classroom (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin & Hall, 1987). Researchers for the Research and Development Team for Teacher Education and the University of Texas at Austin have identified three change facilitator styles (Hall, Rutherford & Griffin, 1982). They are described in operational terms and are referred to as initiators, managers, and responders (Hall, Rutherford, Hord & Huling-Austin, 1984).

Initiators hold clear, decisive, long-range goals for their schools and have well-defined beliefs of what teachers, parents, students, and the principal should be doing to help the school move in that direction. Effective initiators make decisions based on input from those who will be involved. Effective initiators tend to be adamant, but not unkind.

Managers are responsive to situations or people. They do not typically initiate a change process and question changes at the beginning and tend to dampen their entry. They are focused on details and keep teachers informed about decisions, protecting their teachers from what they perceive as excessive demands.

Responders emphasize the personal side of their relationship with teachers and are concerned about how others will perceive decisions and the direction the school is taking. They tend to delay decisions, get as much input as possible, and try to insure that everyone has had a chance express their feelings. They will allow others to make decisions but tend to make inflexible decisions based on immediate circumstances and opinions rather than on longer range goals.

Naturally, strong relationships were found between the change facilitators' styles and the implementation success at the classroom level (Hall, Hord & Griffin, 1980). The Principal-Teacher Interaction Study (PTI) (Hord, Huling & Stiegelbauer, 1983) indicated that the initiator was the most successful at implementing an educational innovation. The managerial type of change facilitators were the next most successful, and the responders were the least successful.

Principal-Teacher Interaction Study (PTI)

The PTI study involved an investigation of interactions between teachers and principals in the implementation phase. The analyses of these interactions showed clearly that intervention is a multi-faceted process. Facilitators must be aware of day-to-day interventions, need a variety of interventions and procedures to monitor intervention behavior. Quality in education is continuous improvement rather than a standard for failure (Candlin, 1993) and teacher innovation is a continuum in which there is continuous reassessment and improvement. The do-or-die type of punitive evaluation robs teachers of their ability to deal with the day-to-day routines as well as the exigencies of students and education (Nunan, 1993).

Change may be totally different in the manner or time frame expected from that originally planned. If all teachers are informed and know that change is a dynamic process, they can continue to work and be prepared variations (Hall & Hord, 1987). In Japan where the dynamics of defined teachers' groups (Nagai, 1971) makes it extremely important in implementing any task or change, teacher input is critical. Candlin (1993) asserted that all affected parties must be involved; otherwise, if people are not cognisant of tensions and lines of accountability, these programmes will come apart .

Structural Resistance to Change in Japanese Schools: The Committee

Change at schools and other institutions of higher education in Japan are largely in the hands of the various committees that set practices at the particular school. These faculty committees ensure standards are maintained and school life is ordered. Committee mandates are set by the school, accrediting bodies, and socio-political conventions. There are numerous factors affecting a committee's perspective, some of which may be unique to an institution. The need to maintain order, justify practices, gain acceptance of rulings, and their general understanding of the environment shape their actions.

Typically, committees are focused on the need for approval and strive intensely to show rationalised decisions that avoid expediency. This tends to make committee styles rather like those of the responders and managers, focused on process and approval and tortuous in detail. For these reasons, it may be impossible to predict what decision may be reached when there is such a preoccupation with opinions. Their decisions will reflect some agreed upon rationale they feel they can state without losing face. Conservatism and the unwillingness to consider change and innovations are typical of committee decisions. As a result, change is not an issue and innovation is viewed as unnecessary or disruptive.

What does this mean in Japan? If, for example, a high school claims to teach in response to entrance exam requirements, it leaves the onus of change up to the universities to change entrance exams before the high school will c[illegible]ider innovations in language education.

If it is decided that schools should be fair in their grading practices, that may result in certain ratios of students who get specific grades regardless of the students' actual achievment.

Guidelines on Language Education in Japan: Policy Changes and Their Impact on Language Education

The new Ministry of Education (1991) guidelines for establishing universities issued on July 1, 1991 has made a tremendous impact on language education at the post secondary level in Japan. Based on these guidelines, over 80% of all schools including those planning curriculum changes (Monbusho, 1995) have either introduced what appear to be innovative communication-based programs, totally eliminated language classes or made them electives. Why were these diverse interpretations possible? In this portion of the article, we will examine the changes of the guidelines and their impact on language education.

Main Changes to the Guidelines

There are three main areas changed drastically. The first main change is the introduction of a "Self-Check and Evaluation" system (article 2 of the guidelines). Each school is expected to evaluate their academic and managerial performance by themselves. This meant that they needed to construct their own evaluation systems. Many schools quickly organized "self-evaluation committees," introduced a system to evaluate their courses and teachers by their students or faculty members, made a list of the research performance of each teacher, and started to publish a syllabus booklet. Some did this for the betterment of their school and some just to show the Ministry of Education that they are listening.

The second area of significant change is the simplification or abolition of requirements in many academic and organizational areas. The categorization among general education courses, major discipline courses, foreign language courses, health and physical education courses was abolished. The previous eight-unit requirement for foreign language courses also ceased to exist. The requirement of a certain ratio of full-time to part-time teaching staff members no longer exists. The number of credits required for graduation was reduced to 128. All of these changes are supposed to allow each school to make a flexible and effective curriculum unique to each school, which supports the needs of the society and a variety of students (Tanaka, 1994).

The third change is the introduction of new course registration systems geared to life-long education. Part-time students are officially recognized (article 31), and units taken at schools other than universities can be transferred now (article 29). These systems also made it possible for universities inside and outside Japan to exchange credits with each other.

Effects on Language Education

The guideline changes have inevitably brought about huge changes in language education. The biggest changes happened around the language curricula. Each school started to re-examine their entire curricula. As a result, those language courses which matched the purposes of each department increased in number, and those which did not were eliminated. Those departments which recognized the importance of language education and those which had language teachers who raised a strong voice increased the number of language courses and improved the language curriculum, and those which did not, reduced the number of the language courses or entirely eliminated them.

The self-assessment system forces the language teachers to write a syllabus for each language course and indicate how the foreign language proficiency of their students would actually improve by participating in their classes. But proving the effectiveness of their teaching is a very difficult task to achieve. Teachers know that a once weekly, 90-minute class with unmotivated students does not work well. As a result, some schools made language classes elective and that got rid of many less motivated students. Some introduced a variety of language classes which may attract less motivated students. ESP courses such as English for study abroad, science English, English for TOEIC, practical oral English, English for those who failed in the previous year, etc. were some examples. (JACET, 1992). Many schools also started to use common textbooks for all sections of the same course even if the sections were taught by different teachers. The expressed purpose of the courses hypothetically becomes clearer and the results of teaching easier to assess. However, this also means taking away more of the teachers' freedom to choose books for their specific students and to teach the way they want.

Some schools chose to adopt a semester system to comply with the increasing number of returnees from abroad. However, some schools simply re-named the first part of the academic year the spring semester and the later the fall semester. At those schools, although the students register for new classes in fall, the classes are taught by the same teacher using the same textbook under a different course name.

This guideline change brought about some negative effects as well which were largely justified according to financial priorities. Many adjunct faculty have been dismissed but the overall adjunct faculty percentage is actually increasing as terminal full-time contracts are being used in higher proportion. Some administrators have taken this opportunity to reduce the number of the costly small size language classes. This can be done by accepting the units or scores from the University of the Air, or the TOEFL, TOEIC, or STEP tests. If students prove that they exceed a standard that each school sets, they are given credits simply by registering in language courses without attending. 115 private universities consider the STEP Test results to some degree in their admission considerations and 22 allow students to transfer credits taken through the University of the Air as of June 1994 (Monbusho, 1994). This trend is increasing at an accelerated rate.

As it happens, failure to claim the importance of language education at any school results in the loss of courses and teaching hours. Two cases illustrate the extent of the change. At the engineering department in school M in the Nagoya area, only two credits of English are required. Students can choose between language classes and physical education classes to meet additional language requirement. Administrators initiated the termination of a number of adjunct faculty; next year others may be asked to leave. School T in the Kanto area introduced an in-house English proficiency test to prove the efficiency of their language education. All students have to reach a certain score whether they pass English courses or not. As a result, students regard the English courses as being rather secondary to or preparatory for this test.

It is unclear if these guideline changes represent real innovation or if they are part of the process of industrial style downsizing and restructuring. It all depends on the power game language teachers are caught up in at each institution.

Recommendations

Clearly change in education is complex and the interpretations are varied. Inagaki makes the following recommendations from the perspective of professional development to promote the professionalisation of teaching in Japan:

1. Deregulation of bureaucratic rules and procedures in education, particularly pertaining to curriculum and materials.
2. Development of clinical research on teaching through the cooperation of teachers and researchers. The case methods of the juristic profession and clinical conference approach of the medical profession are suggested for use in the teaching profession.
3. Involvement of universities in in-service training. (1994, pp. 97-99)

The proposed changes, like many in the past, may not have the necessary political clout that is historically a part of the system in Japan. Held hostage by political agendas, it does not seem likely that sweeping changes to establish a flexible education system that can adapt to social, political, and economic changes will be instituted. The question remains then, will education continue as a 19th-century facade to address the needed international image for Japan as envisioned by past and current political parties, or will it be allowed to develop a professional tradition with the resources and status needed to function for the sake of coming generations.

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[1] In a recent discussion (December 16, 1995) at the SIETAR-Japan Conflict Resolution group year-end party in Shibuya, Japan, one of the participants, a member of her PTA, noted that an elementary school teacher had only just stopped hitting students for mistakes and misbehaviour. She reported that the idea of refraining from physical abuse is only now beginning to take hold in many school districts.

Training and Development: Possible Pathways Forward

Teacher Education N-SIG Sponsored Colloquium

Clive Lovelock
Tezukayama Gakuin University

Kevin Mark
Meiji University

Junko Okada
Asaka Senior High School

Jan Visscher
Language Resources

Andrew Barfield, Moderator
Tsukuba University

Overview

It is accelerating but is it exhilarating? Institutional curriculum reform in junior high schools, senior high schools, colleges and universities, along with increasing competition between language schools in the recession economy, put many pressures on teachers. They are often left alone to make sense of such changes in the classroom. This can be both an exciting and frustrating experience--exciting because change has the official stamp of approval; frustrating because these reforms more often than not happen from the top-down in the absence of properly facilitative frameworks. What is effective change? How can this be achieved--and sustained? Is the process the same for the novice teacher as it is for the experienced teacher? These are some of the questions running through the four papers of the first annual colloquium by the Teacher Education N-SIG.

Clive Lovelock: The Training-Development Interface

In this summary, I take up the main points from the discussion which transpired after the audience had read copies of my notes about training and development in relation to the Cambridge Univeristy/RSA Certificate in TEFL to Adults (RSA Cert TEFLA). First, contrary to apparently common perceptions, teacher training and teacher development are not incompatible, but can be mutually beneficial. Pre-service or rookie teachers both want and need a lot more guidance than experienced teachers. At the same time, everyone needs to develop the ability to adapt to different teaching situations and find their own style. Training, in other words, can empower teachers to develop themselves.

Second, the difference for me between training and development is that teacher training involves top-down moulding of teachers in specific skills, techniques and attitudes prescribed by the trainer(s). Training can then quickly equip novices to look like teachers, but problems arise if inflexible training courses ignore individual needs. On the other hand, teacher development is based on bottom-up development occuring from within, not external "formation," and teachers discover individually what works best for them. It is intended to help teachers to manage their own strengths and weaknesses more effectively, and adapt to different or changing, teaching situations. Nevertheless, without help, development is slow ("reinventing the wheel"). In this connection, several books have recently been published on reflective development, and teacher education can be understood to incorporate both training *and* development. For example, training can involve a great deal of theory (as in the RSA Diploma course), or relatively little (as in the RSA Certificate course). In the area of self-development, while many teachers focus on their day-to-day practical problems, they may equally well decide to read up on a theoretical area that interests or seems to be important to them.

With regard to development in the RSA CertTEFLA course, the following assumptions pertain:

1. Different teaching situations require different approaches; different students have different needs, interests, learning styles; different teachers have different teaching styles.
2. The course is not tied to any particular method, but offers various alternatives.
3. The course is highly practical: 50% is directly concerned with teaching practice, and "input" is mostly through interactive workshops related to teaching practice.

As for the relationship between development and training, the course is based on the following suppositions:

1. It aims *not* for trainees to master one model; but to give them skills and awareness to continue developing after the course ends.
2. The syllabus aims to develop basic skills but trainees are free to choose materials or overall methodology.
3. Certain basic principles and attitudes are axiomatic:
   - priority to learning rather than teaching;
   - importance of setting, and teaching to, realistic objectives;
   - students should normally learn, or become aware of, something new--not just have fun;
   - trainees are trained to regard post-lesson analysis constructively.

As for trainee selection and assessment, the course is intended for people who meet the requirements to take a British undergraduate degree course (not necessarily native speakers), who have no prior training in TEFL and no, or limited, experience in the field. Applicants are accepted if they can demonstrate on a written task and in an interview a sufficient intelligence, a comand of English and the interpersonal skills necessary to enable them potentially to become a teacher of EFL. During the course, trainees are assessed mainly through observation of teaching practice (six to seven hours per traineee); plus the trainers look at the trainees' ability to reflect on, and analyse constructively, their own teaching and that of other trainees. There are also two practical written assignments that require trainees to discuss their own teaching experience. Apart from all that, a good deal of weight is given to development, through continuous assessment. There is no final examination, and final grades (A, B, Pass or Fail) are based on the degree of practical autonomy which a teacher is considered to have reached by the end of the course. In borderline cases, future development potential is important. Lastly, each course, the trainers, their performance on the course, their assessments of trainees, the facilities, etc., are evaluated by an external assessor appointed by the University of Cambridge.

Kevin Mark: Teacher Research and Learner Linguistic Needs

There are two aspects of teaching that people constantly refer to. To me they reflect what could be called the "heart" and "mind" of teaching. Underhill, in the quotation below, expresses them in the form of a distinction between teacher training and teacher development:

> The argument for training in this sense may go like this: I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on my pedagogic skills, and my knowledge of the topic I am teaching, and on all the associated methodology. My teaching is only as good as the techniques or materials that I employ, and I improve by learning more about them. I acknowledge that the kind of person I am affects my teaching, but I don't really see

> what I can do about this other than by further training and by gaining experience.
>
> The part of me that argues for development may say things like: I believe that my effectiveness as a teacher depends largely on the way I am in the classroom, on my awareness of myself and my effect on others, and on my attitudes towards learners, learning and my own role. I value my facility with pedagogic skills, and my knowledge of the topic, but it is the "me" who operates them that primarily influences their effectiveness. I teach only as well as the atmosphere that I engender. I believe that education is change, otherwise my work will come to have a static quality about it that is not good for me or my students. (Underhill, 1990)

Why do teachers feel there are forces pulling them in different directions? Why does it appear so difficult for teachers in schools and colleges in Japan, whether they lean toward the mind or the heart, and regardless of their training, to feel they are efficient and effective in helping their students to improve their English ? One reason for both may be that teachers, materials writers and curriculum planners do not have easy access to appropriate data on the kinds of language that Japanese students produce in relation to particular situations, tasks, functions, notions or themes. Access to such data could generate ideas for materials and activities that simultaneously correlate well with students' experiences and needs, both as language learners, and as people. This would help teachers to be more efficient and to become more aware of possibilities for approaching their students as people.

How might a teacher begin to gather learner production data ? A sensible way is to start with the kind of language that students use in classroom activities or outside-class activities of all kinds that interest them, that engage them as people, and for which they sense there is meaningful purpose. The following exercise is a simple example that illustrates the principles involved. A student has completed my task of writing definitions of "a teacher," "a bad teacher," and "a good teacher." The words in italics represent my rewriting. The task requires close attention to vocabulary and grammar, can be used as a tool in training students to use a monolingual dictionary, and asks the student to reflect on their experiences of being a student. It is inherently communicative in that it asks for authenticity of feeling and thought, which motivates me as the teacher to learn from it:

A teacher is the man who leads student to better direction.
A teacher is a person who leads students in a better direction.

A bad teacher is only controlling students.
A bad teacher is someone who does nothing but control students.

A good teacher is someone who wins students's sympathy.
A good teacher is someone who is able to establish a friendly relationship with students based on trust and mutual respect.

If the data for a number of students is collected, a small but significant resource is produced. It contains linguistic and attitudinal data traces that can generate ideas for further materials and activities relevant in linguistic and whole-person terms; this can be combined with other such resources in working toward a much larger learner corpus. The data is of course further enriched by a comparison with native speaker production, if time and other constraints allow for the production of corresponding native speaker versions for each sentence.

Thus, to sustain corpus development over time, teachers need to cooperate, and to incorporate data gathering into the design of everyday teaching activities and materials. The approach I am advocating can thus be called "integrated" in more than one sense: it simulateneously approaches linguistic and "whole person" needs, and it combines teaching and research. It offers a rich possibility for going forward as a person, and as a teacher-researcher.

Junko Okada: Curriculum Renewal and Teacher Development

In 1994, a nationwide curriculum renewal was carried out in English education in Japanese high schools. However, not all classroom teachers are sympathetic to this change, and many are at a loss as to what to do in their classes. This is because teachers' viewpoints were not well reflected in the decision-making process for the renewal. This curriculum renewal, in other words, seems to have been carried out at an exhilarating pace that has outstripped most teachers. What then to do? What models should we look towards ?

White (1988) describes two models of curriculum renewal in relation to teacher development. The first model, *The Research,* *Development and Defusion Model,* is basically a top-down renewal model. Here, some knowledgeable educational leaders do research into current learning theories and teaching methodologies. Based on the results of their research, they develop teaching materials; these are then mass-produced and distributed. Classroom teachers are supposed to adopt and use the materials. In this top-down model, teachers are not involved in the renewal process, and this leads to little, if any, teacher development. On the other hand, in the second model, *The Problem-Solving Model,* teachers begin to change the curriculum themselves. This is bottom-up curriculum change. In this model, when teachers have problems in their classrooms, they meet and discuss them. After they have decided which problems to work on, they start action research. This may involve getting information on learners' needs and proficiency, and/or looking at different teacher needs, learning theories, and teaching methodologies. The teachers themselves then develop suitable materials for their students, experiment in the classroom, and evaluate their work. What is significant in this process is that the curriculum emerges through teacher development. This might be considered an ideal direction for curriculum renewal in Japan.

There are however some difficulties that need to be dealt with before the latter kind of curriculum renewal can be carried out. First of all, teachers do not always have time to meet, discuss and study their curriculum and classroom teaching. In high schools in Japan, teaching classes is not often considered the primary job of teachers. Rather, school administrative work (school budget, preparing for school festivals, paper work, etc.); homeroom class management (dealing with students' behaviorial problems, attendance, grades, individual career guidance, meeting parents, etc.); and club activities are considered much more important. Some research that I did with 20 high school teachers around the Tokyo area confirmed this. In response to the question *"What kind of jobs do you spend the most amount of your work time on?,"* first came homeroom class management, then club activities, then classroom teaching, and, finally, school administration. Note that classroom teaching comes third. Note also that teachers feel a lot more pressure from work other than just teaching. If a teacher does not prepare classes, no other teachers will criticize him or her for it. However, if they do not complete administration tasks and homeroom responsibilities, they will be on the receiving end from other teachers. It is therefore natural that teachers care more about work other than teaching.

Another difficulty is that the low quality of existing teacher education programs makes teachers feel that such in-service education carries no value. This in turn does nothing to change their lack of interest in methodology. As part of the questionnaire mentioned above, the following question was also asked: *"What do you think of teacher education programs held by the Prefectural Board of Education?"* Answers to this question most often mentioned: not practical (little presentation/discussion of hands-on types of activities); not relevant to student needs; too many lectures and too few workshops; insufficient time; unsystematic. From this, we can say that teachers feel that many teacher education programs do not really help their classroom teaching. Regrettably, it is very difficult to change this attitude once disillusionment has set in.

Thus, if Monbusho really would like to see changes in English education in Japan, the first step may well be to facilitate teacher development alongside curriculum change. For this, there is a need to establish a practical support system that can help teachers afford the time and the money to take part in development-oriented teacher education programs. The lesson is: if teachers can develop, then curriculum renewal will follow through.

Jan Visscher: Teacher training: Initiation to Development (or the Agony and the Ecstasy)

Training and development are not painless processes. This is shown by comments and reflections culled from journals and course evalutions by teacher trainees[1], where a clear pattern of progression seems to hold true for most of the course participants. Indeed, much of the literature related to the affective side of teacher training confirms a pattern of initial confusion and uncertainty leading on to a fear of failure, frustration and anguish; in most cases, eventually and fortunately, this also leads to satisfaction and even pride in what has been achieved, especially in the area of personal development.

The parallels with initiation as a social ritual are too obvious to be ignored. In its most basic form, the purpose of initiation is to prepare young people for their membership in adult society with all its accompanying rights and responsibilities. Strikingly often, one stage of the ritual involves a passage through a dark area or tunnel, and sometimes includes a lengthy stay in a frightening or mind-altering environment. But once the rite of passage has been completed, it can be seen in retrospect as a "right of passage"--that is, as an ordeal that may not be denied to anyone who wishes to develop into an adult.

The questions that gave rise to this presentation were: *"Do most trainees really have to go through the 'agony stage' ? Is it possible to avoid this ordeal for the majority or perhaps all trainees?"* The obvious place to start looking for answers is with those few trainees who seem to be able to complete the course without any noticeable feeling of anxiety. Finding out how they cope could well lead to an "agony prevention programme" for the development of coping strategies. However, until the NLP (Neuro-Linguistic Processing) people come up with some much-needed empirical findings, we have to look elsewhere for an intermediate step in the right direction.

In several teacher training programs that I have participated in, either at the receiving end, or at the other end, the approach to the ordeal as initiation to development is one of circumvention more than prevention. This approach has as its principal aim increasing the supply of nuts and bolts, i.e. providing the trainees with "surefire" techniques that translate into certainties without them having to go through the insecurity-laden process of reflection and self-examination. The trouble with the great supply of nuts and bolts, however, is that they are useful for assembling a structure, but if the foundation of that structure is not solid, it topples easily when it is attacked by the winds of change or the tremblors of teaching situations where the techniques do not apply. A solid foundation for teachers consists of a coherent and internally consistent credo based on experience and reflection.

It is my contention that "going back to the basics" as a circumventive device, without the creation of a basis to build on, is doomed to failure, because it is doing the same thing, albeit in different guises, over and over while expecting different results (the latter activity represents, incidentally, one definition of insanity).

The possible pathway forward I would like to propose - as mentioned earlier, until something better comes along, possibly from NLP--is to accept the anxiety, confusion and resentment--in other words, the crisis stage, in a training course - as an inevitable prelude to, and part of, development. That crisis represents a change in the perception of oneself as a teacher, which, for most of us, is quite the same as change in the perception of self. This holds true even for trainees who have never taught because of the thousands of hours they have spent in the classroom as students, during which models of what teachers should look like and what they are supposed to do have been deeply imprinted (Freeman, 1994). The corollary of acceptance of the crisis stage is for trainers to ask themselves how they can help trainees go through it successfully and turn the negative emotions and perceptions into positive outcomes.

The term "crisis" in the educational process brings to mind the counselling approach to learning (Counseling Learning or CL) originated and developed by Charles Curran (1972), and applied to language learning in the form of Community Language Learning, or CLL (Curran, 1976). Here, critical stages in the development of the learner (*trainee*) and her or his relation with the counselor (*trainer*) are accepted at face value, analyzed and worked through. (The terms in parentheses are my additions). Counseling plays a central role in the group process: it is not peripheral and individual as is often the case in many teacher training courses. (The latter is in its setting much closer to therapy, for which most teachers are not qualified--sometimes with literally fatal results). The procedure of CLL involves the processing of the learner's language of affect by the counselor for feedback to the learner in a cognitive form--what I understand is very close to asking someone to take the "third position" in NLP.

That these two disciplines, CL and NLP, should touch at this point is not so surprising if we remember that the subject is change for development. With CL, however, I hold that such changes must, of necessity, be painful, and that smoothing them over is likely to make the change less profound. I also believe in the power of metaphors to inform: it is no accident that "growing pains" and "birth pangs" are common collocations with both literal and figurative meanings. The trainer has the responsibility to provide the tools for turning these pain and pangs into positive results. These tools can range from a step-by-step lesson plan to be executed and then reflected upon by the trainees, with the aid of counseling by the trainer, to creating, again through counseling, a suitable framework for the venting of frustration and anger.

The design and employment of such tools has only one objective: to make the teacher training course primarily into an instrument for personal growth through change, because no matter how hard we try to change our students and our teaching environment, the only way we can change them is by starting with changing ourselves.

Notes

1. These trainees took part in the Cambridge/RSA Certificate in TEFLA (Teaching English as a Foreign Language to Adults) teacher training programmes, which have been conducted at Language Resources in Kobe since 1989.

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Section Two

Curriculum Design

Competency Assessment in Curriculum Renewal

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From Proficiency to Competencies

Christopher Candlin opened the colloquium by describing how competency-based training is currently being widely adopted into language teaching and learning. Competencies are descriptions of what a learner can do after a course of study, stated in terms of the learner operating within a language context, using knowledge, learning strategies and skills. They usually include descriptive statements of what students are to do and what they have to know, as well as performance criteria and key variables governing performance.

Competency-based training, as Bottomley, Dalton and Corbel (1994) explain, has a number of advantages:

- learning goals are identified;
- curriculum content is made explicit;
- curricula are authenticated through criterion-referencing;
- all participants in the process are clear about its purposes;
- learning tasks can be linked to goals; and
- assessment of performance is facilitated through specificity.

There are also disadvantages, however. Theories of language and learning underlying the competencies are open to debate, for example, while not all language learning related factors of a psycho-social nature can be expressed in competency terms. Furthermore, it is problematic to define certain competencies --"can get on with people in an empathetic way," while important in a cross cultural environment, cannot be precisely defined. Perhaps most importantly, while the learner may be accumulating various competencies, this does not necessarily equal her overall capacity--this would imply a (flawed) building block theory of language acquisition. The links between performance and ability are a matter of inference--that the learner can do Y does not necessarily imply that she can transfer this to what she has to do in X or Z. Finally, outcome oriented, competency-based teaching may ignore processes of learning which many teachers may consider more interesting or more important.

Competencies in Learning Tasks and Language Assessment

Competency-focused teaching is task-based (Candlin, 1987; Nunan, 1989) and typically consists of the accomplishment of criterion-referenced tasks, designed against specifications of particular language and learning constructs. Task achievement is measured against a range of performance objectives--within acceptable ranges of performance which are partly determined by reference to the constructs and partly by curriculum and learner group-specific attainment goals.

Candlin then enumerated various benefits deriving from competency-based assessment. Citing Brindley (1993) and Bottomley, Dalton and Corbel (1994), he indicated that although some teachers might disagree, it has been reported that teachers and learners become more focused on language as an assessment tool rather than on language knowledge. Assessment is integrated into the learning process through the use of attainment targets which are directly linked to course content and objectives. Learners feel that there is an opportunity for formative assessment against transparent targets during the process of learning. They can obtain diagnostic feedback on their progress and achievement since explicit criteria are provided against which to measure their performance. Whether learners can actually do this, with training as necessary, remains to be empirically discovered. Finally, if assessment of learner progress is expressed in performance terms, this is intelligible to non-specialists. This leads to better communication between users of assessment information--employers and educational institutions. Teachers as assessors have a responsibility, to learners, to parents, and prospective employers, to be as transparent as possible. Assessment expressed as a numerical score, although seemingly understood and appreciated by employers in Japan, can be interpreted in different ways. Numerical scores, as opposed to certification based on what learners can do, may cause problems when learners change courses, institutions or employment.

Learner Assessment as Part of Curriculum Renewal

After Candlin's theoretical scene setting, Ian Harrison described the context in which an assessment system is being developed as part of curriculum renewal at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages. He mentioned two underlying principles of the new curriculum. First, it is "client-focused" with learners' needs and wishes at center-stage and secondly, reiterating Candlin's point, it is competency and task-based.

Harrison next outlined the work of one project research team which obtained quantitative and qualitative data on student needs and aspirations, using various data sources--students, faculty, high schools, employers, KIFL graduates. He briefly reported results of some of these surveys. It was found, for example, (Harrison, Gruba, Kanberg, Mont, and Olsher, 1992) that when asked what tasks they wanted or expected to perform in English, "to communicate orally with foreign work colleagues, operate in English in foreign countries, read brochures/magazines" were all ranked highly by students. When the team asked firstly KIFL graduates what tasks they actually perform in the workplace (together with the English skills needed for completion of the tasks) and secondly employers what tasks they would like graduates to be able to perform, they were told for example, "checking foreign guests into a hotel," "giving directions to foreign tourists," and "handling money exchange transactions" (Goodman & Orikasa, 1993).

The data gathered on what employees actually do--plus the language skills required - enabled another project team to develop performance-based curriculum goals and objectives. For example, the curriculum goal, "to acquire practical communication skills relevant and useful to the workplace" had among others the following associated competencies: " can meet a foreign visitor and introduce self, can take telephone messages, can make a foreign exchange transaction, can help a foreign customer open a bank account."

As Candlin had mentioned previously, competency-focused teaching is task-based and the instructional materials developed during the project therefore focus on tasks involving, as above, meeting foreign visitors or taking telephone messages. Accomplishment of these tasks had to be measured; the learner assessment team had to develop a system whereby the institution, administration and teachers can assess student performance on specified curriculum competencies. This system consists of a curriculum-relevant placement test and procedures for teachers to assess formatively their students' performance on specified competencies.

Harrison concluded his talk by outlining some contextual factors which have affected the KIFL curriculum renewal. He mentioned the proficiency-based culture of Japan and the widespread use of letter grades--and the problem that these do not necessarily mean the same to all concerned. He mentioned also the importance in Japan of standardized tests such as the STEP or TOEIC. Courses in test-taking strategies for standardized tests have therefore remained as electives, and letter grades have been kept in tandem with a more transparent competency profiling system. Finally, Harrison stated the need to ensure that teachers, learners and administration, as well as employers, schools and parents understand competency-based teaching and assessment including the role of the learner in the process. This, he said, is crucial.

Competency-Based Assessment in the Classroom.

Anthony Green next described the classroom implementation of competency-based assessment. He outlined the previous, centralized assessment system at KIFL, where all students at a particular level followed the same course, at the same speed. The new curriculum provided more learner choice and the new assessment system had therefore to supply information on individual student achievement on a range of different competencies.

Referring to the work of the needs analysis and the goals and competencies setting teams, Green described the information gathered for the curriculum design stage, including course and materials development, but said that it proved problematic to develop criterion-referenced assessment tasks for some of the curriculum competencies. He mentioned difficulties with intercultural and learning-how-to-learn competencies. Even with communication competencies, such as "can negotiate a transaction," it proved difficult to deal with the narrow range of competencies, since they had to examine the overall specification to determine the different texts and settings. The team therefore created more detailed, more diagnostic competencies. Green exemplified some of these, "can initiate a transaction," "can sustain a conversation on a familiar topic," "can close a transaction with appropriate leave takers."

Green next described how six teachers trialling the new instructional materials were asked to assess their students using the list of competencies. The team wished to see how meaningful the competencies were and how they were relevant to students. He found that teachers had difficulty with the hierarchy of performance descriptions. They therefore reduced the number of competency statements and introduced a three-point performance scale:

- Can . . . with help from the teacher or while referring to prompts.
- Can . . . using one or two basic expressions and strategies.
- Can . . . confidently with a range of appropriate expressions.

Teachers are now using the streamlined list, together with assessment tasks, to assess their students. Green showed a typical profile which uses the three-point performance scale (see Appendix). Concerning the advantages of such a system, he said that a profile can show what individuals have accomplished--not all students in a class have necessarily done the same work. Since assessment is done in class by teachers, choices can be made on what and when to assess: the system has more flexibility than one centrally controlled test. Profiles also have a potential diagnostic function: students can work on identified areas of weakness. Green also pointed out weaknesses with the profile, for example, the lack of information on tasks done by individual students. He also questioned whether competency statements, even in Japanese, at the moment are meaningful to students who, it appears, do not use the information to guide their further study.

Green then mentioned a number of challenges to be addressed. The requirement to produce letter grades as well as learner profiles, he said, is problematic: "After the complicated system of assessment, the result is the same as we used to get," said one teacher. He showed how teachers have not yet fully understood competency-based assessment: "The present system does not evaluate students' ability equally. Each student should be given the same focus area."

Practical issues of implementation that Green raised included teachers being unused to integrated skills courses or to learner-centered classrooms, as well as teacher claims that: "Generally, Japanese students do not reflect on the learning process, or care to." He mentioned concerns about lack of time for planning or processing assessment records, and that teachers do not understand how formative assessment can be used as a diagnostic teaching tool: "It takes up too much time and work which reduces the effort for teaching."

Ironically, although the assessment team wished to empower teachers, the system was perceived as threatening their autonomy: "Assessment ... tends to usurp teacher authority." and "The new system... usurps [teachers'] ability to grade as they see fit."

Green concluded by stating that teachers will need to be convinced that competencies are useful for planning, for informing and encouraging learners, and for informing the institution administration and external audiences of student achievement. He finally stated that the current competencies are still being trialled and are being revised and simplified using feedback received.

Developing a Curriculum-Relevant Placement Test

Charles Smith started by explaining why the team developed a test to place students in ability levels with regard to curriculum competencies. He said that the main selection criterion of employers was the level in which students were placed. The team realistically felt that it was important, therefore, to place entering students in a level representing what they could already *do*. In addition KIFL had used the Michigan English Placement Test for some years and, while admitting that this test ranks students on a continuum for assignment to different levels, Smith explained that it measures global proficiency through discrete point testing--under attack for some years now--and is not linked specifically to KIFL classrooms, the washback effect therefore being unhelpful.

The Kanda Level Placement Test (KLPT) therefore aims to distribute students across an ability range with regard to the courses offered and the competencies specified. The team also hoped that the test would provide diagnostic information for materials revision and for teachers before the year began. The test focuses on receptive skills and reflects the topics and tasks found in the instructional materials. Item types, since computer forms are used, unfortunately do not include short written responses and are true-false-no information, matching or multiple choice.

The time scale for test development has been from January 1994 to March 1996 to complete trialling and retrialling of items for one form of the test. When development began, instructional materials were still in the process of being written and item writers therefore had to rely on syllabus specifications and curriculum competencies. Item writers, however, were increasingly able to write from the materials, incorporating similar texts and tasks. Smith described how assessment item writing is very similar to materials writing and how there is a similar need to determine what exactly people do with a text in the real world. He showed how one text--a travel brochure--is used to test student ability to scan to find specific information on, for example, prices and dates. He emphasized that this kind of text and associated tasks are similar to those which confront the student in her courses.

Smith briefly described the editing of items by teachers and project personnel to identify problems with text, rubrics or with the assessment tasks themselves. He next explained how items were trialled by administering versions of the test to batches of students and then subjecting the results to standard statistical analysis for item facility and item discrimination. This information was used to revise or eliminate items.

Smith concluded by indicating future work on the test--the addition of productive skills items and further refinement of existing items.

The Role of the Learner in the Assessment Process

David Nunan described briefly the targeted action research planned as part of the Kanda project in order to look at the effect of giving learners the opportunity to reflect on the learning process and involving them systematically in self-monitoring and self-assessment. However, since the full curriculum was only implemented in the 1995-1996 academic year, no research has been completed. He wished, therefore, to report on an action research study of a group of not dissimilar students at the University of Hong Kong.

The research questions investigated in the study were:

- Does guided reflection and self-reporting lead to greater sensitivity to the language learning process on the part of the students?
- What effect does guided reflection and self-reporting have on the development of learning skills?
- To what extent do guided reflection and self-reporting lead learners to formulate more realistic learning goals?

During the course of the semester, students completed a weekly form and were also interviewed using their answers as a basis for discussion. They had to complete statements such as:

- This week I studied:
- This week I learned:
- This week I used my English in these places:
- This week I made these mistakes:
- My difficulties are:
- My learning and practicing plans for next week are:

Nunan showed how the process of answering the questions made students more aware of, for example, opportunities for using English outside the classroom. He explained the qualitative analysis done on the student responses, comparing what they wrote at the beginning and the end of the course and gave some examples of the differences. For instance, one student wrote early in the course (This week I studied:) "The nature of verbs." while at the end she was writing, "I read a journal article called Geographic which is published in New Zealand. I have spent an hour to discussion with my psychology classmates." Or (I would like to know:) "How to improve my English." versus "The method that can improve both my listening and speaking skills."

Conclusions drawn by Nunan included the fact that opportunities for self-assessment do seem to lead to greater sensitivity to the learning process over time and to greater articulation of the kinds of processes that were occurring. He said that learners also made greater connections at the end of the semester between what they did in the English support courses and what they had to do in their regular content courses. However, one of the conclusions reached was that the ability to reflect and self-report varies dramatically from learner to learner, and seems to be a cognitive, personality variable. Some learners seem to grasp quickly what is required and to benefit from it, while others showed little movement over time. This might be due, said Nunan, to affective factors such as lack of previous success and therefore interest in English, or could be due to cognitive styles. This would be useful further research.

Nunan emphasized that it was important for the reflection process to be voluntary: if students find it burdensome this is likely to have a negative effect, and results may be the opposite of what was hoped for. He said that it was encouraging that learners could develop skills for articulating what they want to learn and how they want to learn, although it was unclear from the study whether they were simply appropriating the necessary discourse or whether they had made significant cognitive developments.

Nunan finished by describing the next stage of the research: written responses have been dropped in favor of two-weekly interviews conducted (in English) by a co-teaching colleague who is Cantonese speaking and who can therefore pursue interesting issues. Much more qualitative and informed data are therefore being obtained. He emphasized that this kind of research is valuable, providing insights into what learners actually think. As the Kanda curriculum settles down, it is hoped to conduct similar studies with the students.

Francis Johnson closed the colloquium by saying that while much interesting work and research had been accomplished, the assessment system designed to assess learners against specified competencies is still at an early stage of development. The current evaluation process, he said, will strengthen and improve the system for the next academic year.

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Appendix

Junko Kanda　Id. Number 567890　Class code 1234

In class work this session Junko has shown the ability to do the following in English...

3 Without support, and with a range of strategies as appropriate, Junko can:

S24 Sustain a conversation by giving relevant information or extended responses
W3 Complete short tasks which place a clear structure on the text

2 Independently, in familiar contexts, Junko can:

S25 Sustain a conversation through common questions and short responses
S29 Use interjections, relevant questions or other techniques to encourage conversation
W11 Organize work using layout headings and format
R6 identify opinions stated in text
L19 make inferences from information provided in text

1 Using prompts, or with help from other students Junko can:

S17 Give extended presentations on familiar topics
W21 Write and structure extended texts

The Evolving of a Curriculum

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Discussions of curriculum, including English language arts curriculum, often focus on courses, methods and materials, because most discussions occur on a department level rather than beginning, where they should begin, at the institutional level. This paper explains curriculum management by using examples from a junior college Department of English as the faculty implemented a new curriculum. An effective management system ultimately determines choice of methods and materials and gives better focus to proposals for curriculum change.

A well-defined sequence of activities were followed in the process of curriculum change. Each step was governed by a time-line so that all changes could be presented to Monbusho by the appropriate date. The process was unusual in that the committee was made up equally of native English speakers and Japanese professors, and all were involved in the decision making process.

Monbusho's *Revised Standards for Colleges and Universities*, which were promulgated in July 1991, certainly shook up the world of university English education in Japan. According to *The Daily Yomiuri* (Sept. 17, 1992), Professor Shimemura, speaking at a symposium held at Waseda University, stated that, "The most noteworthy point is that the standards stress the importance of designing systematic curriculums at the initiative of individual schools." Thus it is important that university faculty cooperate with one another to discuss how they can provide their students with the most effective education working toward an ideal curriculum.

Curriculum management begins with statements of philosophy, role and scope. Without clear statements under these two headings, the school or department has no control over curriculum decisions. If there is no role and scope statement, the school has no target population from which to recruit.

Without a "target group," the public relations department is inefficient. Their publicity effort has no direction toward the kind of students the school can best serve. Our school has a sister-school relationship with an American school and desires to encourage international education. Recruitment efforts focus on students who wish to study abroad, and curriculum efforts hope to ensure delivery of the advertised program with courses designed to give students enough skills to take advantage of the experience. If recruitment efforts and curriculum decisions are to be efficient, the "image" of the institution cannot be vague. The English Department followed a well-defined sequence of activities in the process of curriculum change. Each step was governed by a time-line so that all changes could be presented to Monbusho by the appropriate date.

Curriculum Procedure

First, the curriculum committee considered current conditions in the college, community, nation and the world. Second, they identified characteristics of a good citizen in such a society. Third, they listed the broad knowledge and skills necessary to produce the ideal graduate citizen. Fourth, the committee wrote College Goals and Department Objectives to develop in students the desired knowledge and skills. Fifth, they identified courses responsible for satisfying each objective. In this process, the committee at every step worked with the full English faculty for approval and support of the philosophy, goals, and objectives. Every course included in the new curriculum has a clear description, list of objectives and procedures. Each course was examined and evaluated in the light of departmental objectives and goals. In this process some courses were combined, eliminated, or added as needed to meet objectives. Finally, the faculty produced course syllabi.

Statement of Educational Philosophy

A statement of educational philosophy is based on an analysis of current conditions in the school, community, nation and world. That includes information and direction from Monbusho. The statements identify the knowledge and skills needed by an ideal citizen in such a society. For purpose of illustration, we will list only two statements of philosophy from our program to show how these statements influence curricular decisions:

> 1. The greatest natural resource of any nation is its people. A wise nation provides opportunities for all citizens to develop individual skills to the maximum. This condition is especially important in a democratic society.
>
> 2. "Effective citizenship is impossible without the ability to think. The good citizen, the one who contributes effectively and responsibly to the management of the public business in a free society, can fill his role only if he is aware of the values of his society. ...He must have in addition the intellectual means to study events, to relate his values to them, and to make wise decisions as to his own actions. He must also be skilled in the processes of communication and must understand both the potentialities and the limitations of communication among individuals and groups." (National Education Association, 1961, p. 6)

Each statement of philosophy describes current and anticipated future conditions in the society where the student will live. The school's purpose is to educate students to live in such a society. Therefore, the next step is to determine what knowledge and skills would prepare students to function as effective citizens in that society.

Institutional Goals

Institutional goals describe the knowledge and skills necessary for a person to function effectively in the society described by the philosophy. Goals are broad statements which include *all* the knowledge, understanding and skills taught by the institution. That sounds difficult, but it isn't. Most institutions would write four to seven goals. Goals are often not stated in behavioral terms of what students can do. Our college had no institution-level goals based on a statement of philosophy. Therefore, our English Department faculty wrote the following college-wide goals based on our statements of philosophy.

***Institutional Goals:* The student who graduates from Seinan Jo Women's Junior College will be able to do the following:**

1. Think for herself. (Philosophy 1, 2)
   a. Use independent learning skills. (Philosophy 1)
   b. Use thinking processes of analysis, evaluation, synthesis, and application. (Philosophy 2)
   c. Apply knowledge to personal, family, social, and professional situations. (Philosophy 2)

2. Communicate effectively in writing and orally in a variety of settings. (Philosophy 2)
   a. Communicate effectively.
   b. Communicate effectively through public speaking and in small and large group discussions.
   c. Communicate effectively in themes and research papers.
   d. Read effectively.
3. Demonstrate and understand the influence of culture on life choices. (Philosophy 2)
   a. Analyze the Japanese culture and at least one other culture.
   b. Examine causes of conflict and conflict resolution between cultures.
   c. Describe the effect of culture on personal and national decisions.
   d. Explore the history and value systems which produce differences in cultures.
   e. Relate to people from other cultures and, when possible, experience life in other cultures.

Department Objectives

Each goal comes from the statements of philosophy and should relate to every department in the institution. Each department objective should relate directly to one or more institutional goals. Department faculty must examine graduation requirements to determine which courses teach the knowledge and skills outlined by the institutional goals.

Department objectives are behavioral statements of skills which students develop by taking department courses. Because department objectives support institutional goals, if students can do the department objectives, they will meet the institution's goals. Therefore, the beginning point for writing department objectives lies in analysis of institutional goals. Decide first where you are going — the goals and objectives. Then decide how to get there — the methods. For the present, the focus must be on the skills which students will have upon completion of the department graduation requirements. Regardless of the skill level which the student possesses at entry, what must she be able to do upon completion of the department curriculum in order to meet institutional goals?

For example, our English Department faculty wrote the following department objectives related to institutional goals. If a student can accomplish what the department objectives say, they can also accomplish the institutional goals.

List of English Department Objectives

The English department graduate will be able to:

1. Think for herself: analyze, compare, contrast, synthesize (bring ideas together), evaluate and provide supporting evidence for ideas expressed in the English language.
2. Describe her own and other cultures. Identify causes and propose solutions to cultural conflicts. Give examples of reciprocal influences between language and culture and the effects of culture on life choices.
3. Communicate effectively in spoken and written English in a variety of settings. Communication skills include listening, speaking, reading and writing.
4. Use appropriate personal, general vocational and social skills related to life.
5. Identify solutions to problems related to aging.
6. Describe problems and proposed solutions to problems related to the changing role of women in society.
7. Identify basic Christian beliefs and values related to personal and social life.

Course Review

The next step in the management process answers this question: Where (in what courses) will these student skills be developed? To answer this question the faculty must examine every course to determine its relationship to the department objectives and to other courses.

During this examination the faculty will readily identify courses which have no relationship to skills which the department and institution propose to teach. Those courses should be eliminated or brought in line with goals and department objectives. Our department dropped a course in "Journalistic Writing" because it was beyond the role and scope of our college and a new course called "Media English" was created which more closely fit our goals and objectives.

The faculty may also discover that there is no course which relates to the stated goals or objectives. In this situation a course must be added. In our case, we added courses in word processing in English using Macintosh and IBM personal computer labs. These courses assist in meeting Institutional Goal Two and Department Objectives Three and Four. Students begin by learning keyboard skills and conclude by writing business correspondence as well as themes and reports for other courses.

To examine individual courses, the curriculum committee must know the current objectives for every course offered in the department. The committee in a regular department faculty meeting discussed elements of good behavioral objectives. They were given a list of sample verbs which would make objectives clear and behavioral. The committee asked each faculty member to submit a list of behavioral objectives for each course taught. We asked only for objectives — not syllabi. The committee then examined all course objectives to determine how they related to goals and department objectives.

Invariably, faculty involved in this process will identify overlapping among courses. Since "spaced recall" is an accepted learning process, duplication is not necessarily bad. But when duplication is excessive, one course should be dropped. By working with faculty who taught the courses, we combined objectives from a first-year Business English, and Business Writing course, into one course. We identified appropriate objectives to lay a foundation for entry to the second-year course. In this manner, we worked with each individual faculty member to bring course objectives in line with department objectives.

The process of individual course review is time consuming. Nevertheless this effort coordinates the instructional program with the desired goals. After adjusting course structures, eliminating courses, adding courses, and adjusting course objectives to fit department objectives, we were ready for faculty to submit course syllabi. The syllabi with their objectives clearly stated provide continuity when faculty changes occur. This is especially important in management of courses taught by part-time faculty.

Methods, Materials, and Tests

Once course objectives are in place, teachers are in position to select methods and materials directly related to the objectives. Regardless of how wonderful some materials are, if the materials do not teach toward one of the course objectives, the teacher will not use them.

Evaluation is also an important step. Tests must evaluate the objectives. If the objective calls for analysis, the test should be an essay test or be in some format which demands application of analysis skills. If the objective calls for identification or recognition, the test may be in a true-false or multiple choice format. The test design must fit the course objective. This condition demands great care in selecting a verb to state the course objectives. Otherwise, the teacher commits himself to an evaluation system which he has no time to grade or to a test which is impractical to administer. The methods and materials must teach toward the test.

Program Evaluation

Faculty usually design their own tests to evaluate individual course objectives. But there is also a need to evaluate the department's curriculum. Since goals and objectives relate to student behavior upon completion of the department course of study, the department should consider a test for all graduating students. Test questions should clearly evaluate stated goals and objectives. Only then can the department really determine whether the instructional program has produced the skills promised by the objectives. The department may choose a standardized test for this process. But it is difficult to find a standardized test to fit "local" objectives written for a specific program. Therefore, faculty may need to design their own instrument.

Sometimes, departments wish to evaluate student skills at the entry level. Such evaluations can assist in grouping and scheduling. The same test could be given at the exit time to determine degree of progress as well as to evaluate the program. The exit test is critical to identify weaknesses in the instructional program and to recommend remedial changes.

The Management Process

When anyone wants to offer a new course or change an existing course, department faculty should evaluate the proposal according to institutional goals and department objectives. If the course does not meet the goals and objectives, faculty must reject it. If the course covers skills which should be taught, faculty consider revision of goals and objectives. The question of how the change affects course interrelationships is also important. In this process, role and scope, philosophy, goals, and objectives direct curriculum decisions and minimize personality conflict.

With a curriculum management structure in place, the department knows where it is going, what it is trying to do, what it is doing to teach the designated skills, and how all faculty and courses support one another in that effort. In curriculum management, faculty must keep one important idea in mind: No curriculum will ever be perfect. There is constant need for periodic evaluation of philosophy, goals, objectives, courses and their instructors. Results from exit tests demand frequent adjustment. Finally curriculum should be reviewed at least every five years.

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Managing Curriculum Change

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General Principles For Introducing Innovation In Educational Institutions

It is useful to think of institutions as a set of systems, each system complex in itself and related in a complex way with other systems. Firstly, there is a system concerned with the theories held by individuals, the approaches they adopt and their views of learning and teaching. Secondly, there is the system of behaviors that teachers, learners, administrators and educational planners engage in. Next, there is the system of lesson and curricula organization. Finally, there is the system of learners' culturally relative learning styles and the learning strategies they adopt.

When introducing innovation, therefore, it is important to know the nature of the organization in terms of the "looseness" or the "tightness" of the connections between the institutional systems. In a loosely connected system, teachers use a variety of approaches, curricula and lessons are diverse and learners have variable opportunities to pursue their own learning styles and strategies. In a tightly coupled system there is an explicit connection between a particular approach to learning and teaching, the behaviors of the teachers and learners, the curricula designed, and the cognitive activity of the learners and their learning strategy.

Talking about Dutch secondary school systems, de Caluwe (1986) asserted:

> In loosely coupled systems innovations are easy to introduce but are restricted to one or two persons and disappear rapidly; in tightly coupled systems innovations take a long time to introduce and are often not effective unless ownership is diffused.

For example, two teachers can implement changes in their classrooms fairly easily and quickly--but to influence the whole system is more difficult. Similarly, particular learners may decide to approach a problem in a certain way but the system as a whole will not necessarily be affected

With tightly coupled systems, however, innovations take longer and are more difficult to introduce since all proponents of the different systems have to participate in discussions and workshops, to be convinced of the need for innovation and the direction the innovation is taking. Curricula have to be formally laid out, as do assessment systems. This takes time but if one can diffuse the ownership of the innovation in a tightly coupled system, the innovation is more likely to be accepted. It will have "sustainability."

Metaphors Of Curriculum Change

There is opposition between the view that management of curriculum change is a set of phases, levels, and structures and the more practical view that change is more metamorphic, growing organically. Contrary to the view that one works steadily, through different taxonomic levels, it is often the case that several stages in introducing innovation overlap, making it difficult to identify particular "points" reached in the renewal process. The development and implementation of innovation occur in a comparatively unstructured, organic way and it is perhaps therefore incorrect to think of one single point having been reached; it is more helpful to think of a number of different points having been reached in a number of overlapping phases.

The Institutional Context

This study concerns a program of innovation effected at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages (KIFL), Tokyo. Students follow core courses in general and occupational English, Japanese business protocol, and computer skills. They obtain certificated credits by following courses in one or more electives: the hotel or tourism industries, general business, foreign languages, and translation/interpretation. There are approximately 110 Japanese and 80 expatriate faculty members. Expatriate faculty are mainly American but there are also teachers from thirteen other nationalities. Administrators are predominantly Japanese. The context is thus multicultural, bringing both benefits and potential tensions.

The Collaborative Curriculum Innovation Model Adopted

A consultancy team was engaged "to review current curriculum principles, goals and practices, human and material resources in the institution . . ." They then had to "propose new directions for curriculum renewal in the light of the institution's vision statement, the review of the existing situation and the findings of the different research teams set up during the consultancy" (Consultancy Brief, 1992). Finally the team had to develop and implement action plans.

In addition to consultants, teachers and administrators were included from the outset. It was felt that any innovation imposed from above or outside without their cooperation was unlikely to succeed. Accordingly, all project phases involved research teams drawn from faculty and administration volunteers, each with a statement of purpose and set of goals and outcomes. It was hoped that individual knowledge and experience could be combined with an increasing awareness of current research to create a strong foundation for the curriculum innovation. Two committees were established, one to facilitate liaison between institution departments, and the other to try to ensure that the voices of different faculty constituencies were heard.

Teams were guided by consultants through regular meetings, periodic visits and through editorial comments on written outcomes. The intention was that all decision making, whether at project or institutional management level, would be informed by recommendations of research teams.

There were three main stages in the KIFL renewal project:

- planning, where the project was responsible for work produced;
- a transition stage, where responsibility for system refinement was intended to be shared between project and program administrators;
- an implementation stage with responsibility for successful delivery of the renewed curriculum resting solely with program administrators.

The curriculum planning stage itself had three overlapping phases. In the initial phase, teams researched student needs and aspirations, using various data sources: students, faculty members, employers, high schools. This information was used in the formulation of curriculum aims and goals, and exit level objectives. In the second phase, teams gathered and collated information on current research and practice in the teaching and learning of vocabulary, grammar, reading, listening, speaking, and writing, and in the areas of learner styles and strategies, learning content, discourse, and pragmatics. Each group was charged with producing an annotated bibliography, a typology of teaching and learning task-types, and a professional development package for use within the institution.

Finally, this large amount of information and data was used by other faculty teams. Materials developers, for example, drew upon the data to produce syllabus specifications, course and unit plans, and learning tasks. The learner assessment team designed and piloted a system for assessing student performance against exit level objectives, as well as providing professional development support. The resources group looked at the curriculum aim of equipping learners with the strategies required to function independently and planned the development of a multi-media independent learning center. Professional development was seen as crucial to the success of the renewal and a research group examined ways of enhancing the provision of formal and non-formal teacher development, so that faculty could become aware of curriculum aims, goals, objectives and various approaches to achieving these in the classroom. Evaluating the whole curriculum renewal process as well as specific elements such as courses and materials was considered important, and from the outset one team developed program evaluation instruments and procedures.

Tensions in the Curriculum Renewal Process

No matter how well planned the renewal process, in-depth change creates great tensions arising from the organization's collective redefinition process. Collaborative curriculum renewal upsets business as usual. Calling for a collective response can threaten individuals' comfortable routines and territorial privileges. Tensions are bound to surface.

This section provides illustrative examples from the Kanda project of three of these sources of tension:

- communication
- time frames
- transition structure

Communication

Introducing innovation makes communication and clarification imperative so that all participants have shared concepts of the curriculum and of their roles in the process. This can be done formally and informally through presentations, discussions, workshops, reports and proposals, bulletins, and networking. However, it is difficult to avoid miscommunication, particularly in a multicultural environment. The nuances of key terms, in particular, can distort meaning and result in serious misconceptions. These can raise false expectations, creating tensions which disrupt the process.

In the KIFL project, the term "bottom-up" process of renewal was used to signal that the innovation would incorporate learner input and recommendations arising from teacher experience and research. It would not be imposed from above, faculty playing a central role through research and discussion, the writing of materials, and evaluative feedback.

Unfortunately, "bottom-up" was interpreted by some to mean that system-wide decisions would be made by teachers rather than administrators or curriculum planners. "This means we can change everything," was an early teacher comment. The term "bottom-up" was assumed to mean that the research teams' work could also include discussion of working conditions. Already existing frustrations between faculty and management deepened and the term became a point of contention, undermining faculty trust and support so crucial to a participatory process and to the acceptance of the innovation.

It is therefore imperative in such innovation for management to be alert to the effects of word-imagery and to possible misinterpretations. Terms should be explained precisely and, if misconstrued, clarified or replaced with clearer metaphors.

Time Frames

The need to allow adequate time for curriculum renewal in a tightly coupled system is not always appreciated. The alternative is an incomplete product which risks losing the support of students, teachers and administrators.

In early discussions of the KIFL project (1991-2), a minimum five-year time frame had been estimated, but for financial reasons it was later decided that the new curriculum should be implemented in three years. Throughout the process, therefore, time for research, planning, evaluation, and improvement was at a premium. What was gained in time was lost in quality which had to be rectified later.

For example, curriculum objectives, expressed in terms of learner competencies, were formulated concurrently with, rather than after, analysis of learner needs surveys. Only partial analysis of these competencies--and how to best develop them through new materials--was possible before writing began because of the need to meet deadlines for delivery to students. Neither did tight timelines allow for several editing stages or exciting page design. In addition, the three-year target resulted in the use of an assessment system which was not fully designed nor trialed, and which consequently required adjustments during implementation. The incompleteness of the system caused frustrations and was a source of dissatisfaction among teachers and administrators with the new curriculum.

There was little time for the on-the-job training required by most participants since few were knowledgable in curriculum design, editing, writing, or testing Neither was there enough time for the conflict resolution and consensus building so integral to team work.

Project management's response to time pressure was to aim for an "interim" curriculum to meet implementation deadlines. This would subsequently be evaluated and revised to desired standards. Although this satisfied the demand for a new curriculum within three years, the necessary compromises of quality and completeness were perceived as mismanagement, eroding confidence in the project and the curriculum among some people, and increasing the tension which always accompanies implementation of organizational change.

The opposition between adequate time frames and the desire to save money and obtain early publicity value has to be resolved in many projects, but decision makers must know that lowering standards in the short term can lose faculty satisfaction and support. The faults have eventually to be rectified, but not before damage has been done.

Transition Structure

The transition from design to implementation of a new curriculum is a distinct, critical stage needing to be carefully managed.

In the KIFL project, collaboration between curriculum planners and implementers did not continue into the transition stage. Design and implementation seemed to be viewed by administrators as two separate phases with no interface, and therefore no need for a formal structure to ensure continuing collaboration or effective management of the transition. Exchange of crucial information stopped at the start-up of the new curriculum when interdepartmental dialog was most needed. After curriculum designers had provided orientation for teachers, they could not clarify teachers' questions about, for example, course design, appropriate pathways through the materials for developing learner strategies, the nature and use of task chains, or pedagogical issues arising from an integrated skills approach. Implementers were naturally not always sufficiently familiar with the course to be able to answer such queries. In other words, curriculum planners could not provide continuing professional development support--so critical during the start-up phase.

The transition stage was a politically sensitive and administratively unstable moment when a new organizational structure, new management positions and responsibilities, and new working relationships were all being tested. Moreover, teachers were trying to comprehend and deliver the new curriculum effectively but also being seduced by the familiar materials, practices, and objectives of the former curriculum. Tensions arising from inter-departmental politics or interpersonal relationships can affect the important tasks of clarifying concepts or providing practical methodological suggestions to the key implementers--classroom teachers.

The transition phase thus requires a formal facilitating structure--a working group of curriculum designers and implementers to ensure that teachers understand the curriculum and to jointly produce solutions to procedural and administrative problems. Examples of transition issues in the KIFL project which needed to be but were not focused on were (1) an understanding of the learning objectives and various options available for attaining them, (2) encouragement and understanding of co-teaching and team support, (3) an understanding of the relationship between competency assessment and learner responsibility.

Finally, it is important that curriculum evaluation and modification are discussed by both designers and administrators because isolated adjustments made to the system, by whatever "side," can affect the integrity of design and planned outcomes in terms of improvements in learner and teacher performance.

Conclusion

Introducing innovation in a tightly coupled system into an educational institution is a lengthy, complex process. As illustrated by this study of the KIFL project, this process rarely follows a sequence of clearly defined stages. This may be because of the need to accommodate financially imposed timeframes or may be due to the complexity of the process itself, as well as to the fact that we do not necessarily all think or work in logical sequence. Tensions may occur at all moments in the process and while preemptive action can be taken, curriculum planners and implementers must be aware of the need to deal with problems caused by such tensions. Perhaps the most surprising finding of the Kanda project study is that what was intended to be a collaborative design, using input from the "bottom," was in the end influenced by management-labor tensions that had a serious effect upon the acceptance of the renewal.

It would be sad, however, if some aspects of the KIFL experience discouraged further attempts at bottom-up curriculum innovation processes. The enormous activity by over two-thirds of the faculty during the project's lifetime, together with highly professional outputs in terms of reports, seminars, conference presentations, new courses and learning and teaching materials, supplementary materials, self-access worksheets, etc., are all indicative of the extremely valuable professional development aspect of such a renewal exercise.

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Designing and Teaching a Content-based Course

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Content-based teaching has been shown to be a viable method of teaching both content and language. Defined by Brinton, Snow, and Wesche (1989, p. 2), content-based teaching is "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills." The target language is the medium for communicating information about the content subject. The content offers the context for learning language skills.

Krashen (1984) established the importance of context by suggesting that language learners understand material more efficiently when it is presented in a comprehensible context, rather than in fragmented examples of sentences and words lacking connections. Swain (1985) argued that learners develop communicative competence when they acquire meaningful use of the target language.

Other researchers have documented their experience supporting content-based teaching in an English as a second language (ESL) setting (Dubin & Olshtain, 1986; Crandall, 1987; Rosser, 1995). In Japan increasing numbers of universities are changing their curriculum to include English as a foreign language (EFL) content courses (Kizziar, 1987; Halvorsen & Kobayashi, 1990; Biegel, 1991; Hagen, 1991). Kiji and Kiji (1993), reported that students in an EFL content-based anthropology course recalled a larger number of vocabulary items than those in only regular EFL courses. The authors agree with Mohan (1986, p. 3) who states, "there is no reason for the language classroom to be restricted to language teaching for its own sake."

Brinton, et al. (1989), define three models of content-based instruction— theme based, sheltered, and adjunct. The authors use a modified version of the sheltered model in teaching history to second year English majors at Kokugakuin Junior College and Hokusei Gakuen Women's Junior College. A sheltered content course consists of a segregated group of language learners, often all speaking the same first language. The content area teacher is fluent in the target language. The teacher adjusts the content and language learning tasks to learners needs and abilities.

This paper will discuss five areas of concern in designing and teaching a sheltered content-based EFL curriculum: identification of stakeholders; the balance of content and language objectives with students' abilities; use of the students' first language; resources available in an EFL setting; and evaluation.

Stakeholders

Stakeholders are the individuals or groups that have an interest in or influence on how a class is taught. Teachers have to make practical decisions in designing a content-based curriculum which have to do with restrictions or challenges from the community, school, parents or students (Stern, 1992).

National, regional and local laws and expectations may be important to consider in curriculum design. At a school level, teachers may have no input into the type of class (theme-based, sheltered or adjunct); the content that must be taught; class size; or whether the class is required or elective. Likewise, parents may also have expectations of the curriculum in terms of test results in national examinations or vocational training.

Students are also stakeholders. What physical, emotional, and cognitive abilities or challenges do students bring to the class? What past language and content area training have students had? Why do they participate in the class? How does the class fit into their schedule or relate to other meaningful parts of their lives?

The teacher is also a stakeholder. Who is the teacher and what are the teacher's goals for the class? We all bring our dreams, hopes, ideas, biases, strengths, and weaknesses into the classroom. It can be useful to examine these items in deciding which can help develop a strong curriculum.

At Halvorsen's school, history had been taught in Japanese and school authorities had to be convinced that students could learn the content in English. Other English department personnel reviewed the class before it was given a permanent place in the curriculum. In Gettings' school, history was one of the elective core liberal arts requirements. The English department required readings to be the equivalent of North American junior college texts. It also had a long term commitment to developing computer-aided instruction. In setting up the design of the content-based curriculum the teachers at each junior college had to be sensitive to the school and the English department as stakeholders.

Balance of Content and Language Objectives

In a content-based curriculum teachers have to decide on the balance of language and content objectives. What blend of the four language skills will be stressed? How much content information can the students learn in the target language in a given amount of time? What blend of content information and skills will students be taught? Some skills fall neatly into either the language or content areas but some overlap.

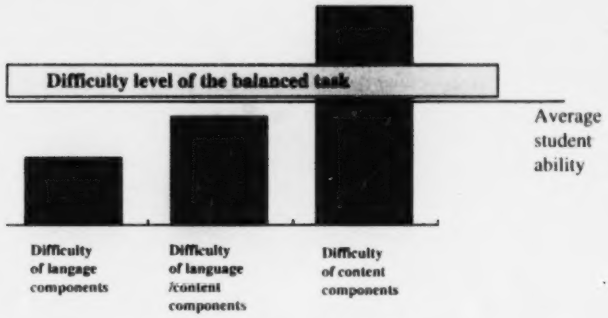
Krahnke (1987) and Skehan (1994) warn about possible fossilization in learners' language use if they are able to successfully learn content without paying close attention to lexico-grammatical features. Willis (1995) believes there should be specific language focused exercises to better exploit the materials selected. Learner support, such as pre-teaching vocabulary, is essential. The nature of the sheltered model is to adjust content and language tasks to the content and language levels of learners in order to design learning tasks that foster a high degree of student success. A balanced task challenges students but is not so difficult as to overburden them or result in low rates of student success.

In Figure 1 the high level of difficulty of the content components of the task is balanced by reducing the difficulty of the language and language/content components. The adjusted difficulty level of the balanced task, which may also include pre-task learner support, is set just above students present ability, with attention to the students' I+1 (Krashen, 1982) or zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1962).

In both authors' classes students must use vocabulary that has been pre-taught, in reading or map assignments or lectures, in order to complete writing assignments or research projects. These activities provide not only repetition, but also context for individual words, two valuable aids in decoding meaning and in retaining lexical items (Carter, 1987).

In lectures where there are difficult content components, the authors take a flexible approach. The difficulty of the language and the length of the lecture are adjusted to make sure the message is being received (Snow, 1991). The lectures, in basic English spoken at a slightly reduced speed, are 20 minutes or less. Repetition and paraphrase are "effective and valuable tools" (Kizziar, 1987, p.33) which the authors frequently utilize. In Halvorsen's class, prior to each lecture,

Figure One



students work through study guide questions for the material to be covered in the lecture. The lecture covers the answers to the questions and adds a little depth to the topic of the unit.

In writing assignments, peer editing is used in addition to teacher editing. This intensifies the support offered the student and adds a lexicogrammatical focus to the task The fact that the teacher is not the only reader reinforces that audience considerations are important and makes the task more communicative (Zamel, 1987).

Using the Students' First Language:

Teaching EFL in a situation where almost all of the students share the same first language, and where first language content resources outnumber second, offers unique opportunities in teaching the content of the content-based curriculum.

The teacher can use students' previously learned schemata from, for example, classes students have taken in earlier grades in the standardized national school system, to ease them into content-based language learning. The teacher can also quickly provide students with schemata before the lesson by giving them first language background materials (Kitao, 1992).

While recognizing the primacy of the target language as the teaching language of the content class, it need not be the only language. Decisions to use other languages, the target language and first language abilities of the teacher, the content area training of the teacher, and the "authenticity" of materials should all be judged by their usefulness in meeting the objectives of the curriculum. In making curriculum decisions we hope to use every resource available in order to be faithful to the goal of fostering a high degree of student success in the language and content learning tasks that we create.

Halvorsen has a question and answer time following each of his lectures so students have the opportunity to clarify anything that they did not understand or to ask a question related to the lecture. As Japanese students seldom volunteer an answer or question, he allows students to use Japanese during this period to help them feel more comfortable when requesting clarification. However, he will usually answer the questions using English. Both Halvorsen and Gettings accept the use of Japanese at times during their small group discussions, and both authors use newspapers, books, and magazines in Japanese for background reading materials. In all cases the students' first language is used to achieve an objective of the content-based task.

Resources

There are many first and target language resources available to content course teachers in a foreign language situation. The authors have used items supplied by various international, national and private agencies, such as radio program transcripts, speech transcripts, newspaper and magazine articles, posters, travel brochures, maps, videos, original family photos, cookbooks, and a myriad of other "non-language teaching" sources. The teacher may need to look beyond the traditional text book to find suitable items. Embassies and consulates, tourist and travel agencies, school and local libraries, individuals in the students' communities, foreign textbooks, television, and the Internet, are just some of the places to explore for useful classroom resources.

Halvorsen has each student write to a tourist agency from one of the fifty U.S. states, Washington, D.C., or a major city. After the information is received, students plan a five-day vacation to the destination of their choice. The letter writing also serves as a language task.

Evaluation

Evaluation measures both student and teacher success. When evaluating students, the teacher must consider both content and language levels in a content-based class. Many methods used to test content learning in sheltered courses require students to have intermediate to advanced language skills. The teacher must consider students' language skills in designing evaluation tasks, just as in designing learning tasks for students.

Both authors base student evaluation on a variety of tasks, in order to assure "that students will not be unfairly disadvantaged by one or two test formats" (Brinton, et al., 1989, p. 187). Halvorsen uses weekly quizzes, a final comprehension test, projects, reports, and map assignments. Quizzes are peer graded so that students are able to see immediately where they made mistakes. Gettings uses lecture notes/summaries, reading assignments and quizzes, library research assignments, and projects that include art, poster presentations, or formal research papers. Computerized reading comprehension quizzes are also used to give the student immediate feedback (Gettings, 1994). By including a variety of evaluation tasks, the authors hope to obtain the best overall performance from each student.

Evaluations of the curriculum by students can indicate whether the students' needs and expectations as stakeholders were met. Student performance on tests are also an indication of the teacher's success in designing learning tasks. Average student performance on quizzes and tests fell in to the 65-75% range (very acceptable in the Japanese system) at both schools. An overwhelming majority of students at Hokusei Gakuen responded that their listening and writing skills had improved more because of the new content-based curriculum than in regular EFL classes. However, they criticized history, in particular, for the amount and difficulty of the work required outside of class. The work was problematic because time was needed for other classes and, because of the worsening Japanese economic situation, for searching for after-graduation employment. The author had not met students needs as stakeholders on this point. He adjusted the curriculum for the following year to give students freer choice in the amount of outside of class work that they completed. The authors have found student feedback to be important for an informed improvement of the balance between content, language, and students' needs in their content-based classes.

Conclusion

This paper has examined five areas of concern in developing and teaching a sheltered content-based course: identification of the stakeholders; the balance of content and language objectives with student abilities; use of the students' first language; resources available in an EFL setting; and evaluation. Students are important stakeholders in the curriculum design process as are the community, the school and the teacher. Teachers need to adjust their language and content tasks carefully to students' language and content levels. Evaluation and student feedback should lead to the kind of adjustment of the curriculum that results in a high rate of student success in both language and content areas. The authors have found the content-based method to be an effective way of teaching and encourage other teachers to incorporate content-based education into their language curricula.

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Global Education: Curriculum and Evaluation

Kip A. Cates, Moderator
Tottori University

Carl Dusthimer
Hannam University

Heather Jones
Suzugamine Women's College

Anchalee Chayanuvat
Chulalongkorn University

Michael Higgins
Yamaguchi University

This colloquium, sponsored by JALT's Global Issues in Language Education National Special Interest Group, addressed the conference theme of curriculum and evaluation as it relates to global education and the teaching of global issues in language classes and programs. Kip Cates, coordinator of the Global Issues National Special Interest Group (N-SIG), began the session by posing the questions: How can teachers design language courses which promote international understanding and knowledge about world problems? How can students be tested for both language proficiency and global awareness? He then introduced the colloquium panelists, an international panel of global language educators from Japan, Korea, Thailand and Canada.

Global Education in Korea

Carl Dusthimer from Hannam University, Korea kicked off the colloquium with an overview of the present status of global education in English language teaching in Korea. He first noted that global education and the teaching of global issues in language classes were still new ideas in Korea. He discussed the growing interest in "segyehwa" (internationalization) in Korea called for by such groups as the Presidential Commission on the 21st Century (1995, p.93), then described the growing demand for educational reform in Korean schools and the call for more emphasis on communicative foreign language skills to better enable Korea to participate in the global community.

Dusthimer then briefly introduced the Korea TESOL organization, a national organization of English language teachers in Korea, and described the formation in early 1995 of a new Global Issues Special Interest Group (SIG) within the organization. This group, like JALT's Global Issues in Language Education N-SIG, aims to increase awareness of global problems such as human rights, the environment, world hunger, and women's issues through a content-based global education approach to language teaching. As the group's first official announcement notes, "language educators are in a unique position to increase students' awareness of global problems. The educational community has a responsibility to prepare and encourage our students to take the necessary steps to preserve our planet for their children" (Global issues, 1995, p.97).

He then described some of the activities of the new SIG, including its collaboration with environmental groups in Korea. This resulted in a "Kite Fly for the Environment" event in Seoul sponsored by the Global Issues SIG which aimed at promoting environmental awareness among Korean language teachers and students.

Dusthimer finished by noting that Korea is still in the beginning stages of implementing global education as an approach to language teaching. He emphasized that Korean language teachers are just beginning to experiment with global issues as language teaching content and predicted some exciting initiatives in the next few years as Korean language teachers gained more experience in this area.

Global Studies at Canadian International College

The second speaker, Heather Jones, introduced the unique global education curriculum of Canadian International College (CIC), a private, academic, Japanese ESL college located in British Columbia, Canada. CIC is committed to nurturing a global perspective among its Japanese students through a learning environment designed to promote independence of spirit, understanding of other peoples and cultures, and a sense of world community. The college was established in 1988 with the mission statement, "to educate students to become globalists, as well as culturally informed citizens of their home country." Japanese students at CIC thus learn both to establish their own identity as Japanese citizens and to participate in the global community.

CIC offers both a two year International Studies Certificate and a four year International Relations program. The first year of both programs focuses on English language development and cultural understanding including content courses on topics such as world resources and human geography. Core courses in the two year program include Culture and Current Issues as well as a major students choose from areas such as Environmental Studies, Business Management, and Bilingual Studies. Core courses for the four year program comprise Social Issues, Global Studies (explained in more detail below), and a choice of major in areas such as Business, Multicultural Studies, and Bilingual Interpreting. A unique component of both programs is the Experiential Studies. This involves students in community service doing volunteer work with non-profit global issue groups and a short-term stay in Mexico where students experience a foreign culture as they study Third World issues faced by developing countries. The curriculum writing guidelines at CIC are focused around the "knowledge framework" developed by Mohan (1986), an organizing tool that allows curriculum developers to systematically link content, academic language and thinking skills. The language component focuses on skill areas, genres, grammatical functions, discourse patterns and language strategies.

The Global Studies curriculum leads students to develop and examine their own global perspective. In Global Studies Year 2, students learn about the economic, political, social and ecological background to present global conditions. In particular, they study how countries and people are linked through global events while analyzing current issues and the power of the media. Language skills developed during this year include the design and production of research papers and small group discussion and debating skills. In Year 3, students examine topics such as human rights and world hunger, and prepare for their international experience in Mexico through studies of Mexican society and development issues. Integrated language tasks in this year combine oral presentation skills with academic writing skills such as testing hypotheses and expressing cause and effect. In Year 4, students investigate and summarize causes and solutions to the international debt crisis, debate Japan's foreign aid policy and refine their skills in summarizing, oral presentations and leading discussions about current events.

Jones explained how designing CIC's global education-oriented curriculum has been an intensive process in which faculty members have had to interpret the goals of CIC's mission statement and combine these with theories of language and content to come up with a comprehensive, integrated student-centred program emphasizing topics of global importance approached through a study of current issues. She concluded her talk by inviting participants to visit Canadian International College to see this unique global education ESL program in action.

Global Issues in the Thai ELT Classroom

The third panelist to speak was Anchalee Chayanuvat of Chulalongkorn University in Bangkok, Thailand. In her talk, entitled *Bringing Reality into the ELT Classroom*, Chayanuvat argued that we cannot isolate the ELT classroom from the outside world. World problems are too urgent to ignore, students need to understand the local and global problems we face and this understanding can be effectively promoted in the foreign language classroom. She explained how global issue topics are dealt with in a set of university EFL coursebooks developed by her and her colleagues at the Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI) in Bangkok.

Chayanuvat began her talk by describing the English teaching situation at her university and the background to her global education materials writing project. At Chulalongkorn University, all students do at least 6 credits of compulsory English. In the EFL program, English is taught through a functional approach which emphasizes communication and the development of students' ability to express themselves, explain their ideas, and exchange views in English.

In 1993, a team of materials writers came together to see how this functional approach could be applied to an English curriculum built around content emphasizing social and global issues. The team's work rested on several key beliefs:

- that, although global issues often sound overly serious to students, they can be explored effectively and in an interesting and empowering way in a foreign language.
- that global issues are critical problems facing students, their communities and the world that can't be ignored and that educators have a duty to address in the classroom.
- that students' global awareness and language skills can be built up through teaching which draws on their world knowledge while practicing English functions such as predicting, summarizing and expressing cause and effect.

Their efforts resulted in a 2-volume thematic textbook series entitled *Foundation English* (Chayanuvat et al, 1993). This comprised units on "Advice" (touching on the topic of AIDS), "Tomorrow's World" (involving topics such as water conservation in Thailand), "Man - the Planet's Worst Enemy" (focusing on topics such as destruction of forests and coral reefs), "Looking at Both Sides" (where students examine the pros and cons of TV and tourism), and "Advertising: Persuasion or Manipulation" (including public service advertisements dealing with the environment and human rights).

Student language tasks devised by the textbook writing team include having students:

- write a letter of advice to a classmate suffering from AIDS.
- practice expressions of probability to predict the future ("If we cut down the forests, ... might/probably/will happen.").
- write cause and effect sentences from two word prompts ("acid rain - dying trees", "untreated sewage - water pollution").
- agree or disagree with statements such as "The Bengal tiger is a fierce animal so it doesn't need to be protected."
- summarize an article about famine in Somalia in a few sentences.
- discuss environmental problems and solutions.

In addition to outlining the design and rationale behind the various textbook units, Chayanuvat described students' positive reactions to the text and showed examples of students' written work. She also mentioned a follow-up curriculum design project called EAP Law in which Chulalongkorn University law students study academic and legal English through a syllabus focusing on global issue topics such as child labor, women's rights, sexual slavery, environmental problems, and consumer rights.

Evaluating Global Education Programs

The final speaker on the panel was Michael Higgins of Yamaguchi University, Japan, who addressed the topic of global education program evaluation. He began his talk by making a distinction between three kinds of evaluation: program evaluation, materials evaluation, and teaching/learning evaluation.

Program evaluation he defined as an evaluation of the ability of the program to meet the objectives of the curriculum designers as well as the needs of both society and the students. Materials evaluation he defined as evaluation of the materials used in a specific course as to how well they achieve the teacher's instructional objectives. Teaching-learning evaluations he defined as measurements of how well students accomplish the teacher's behavioral objectives which specify how, to what extent and under what conditions students will display to the teacher their achievement of the instructional objectives.

He then introduced a model of formal program evaluation applicable to global education, language teaching and other educational programs consisting of four separate stages:

1. the establishment of a program evaluation plan (deciding on program intent, limits, parameters, responsibilities, time lines, etc.).
2. the setting of the direction of courses (specifying instructional objectives, behavioral objectives and materials selection criteria).
3. process evaluations (collecting data for program evaluation in the form of student assignments, tests, participant surveys, etc.).
4. product evaluation (student/teacher/program assessments).

Higgins then went on to discuss materials evaluation, including the need to check global education and language teaching materials (whether print, audio or video) for informational accuracy and evidence of bias. He then introduced a format for categorizing materials according to criteria such as whether they display evidence of stereotyping, ethnocentrism, discrimination or bias based on gender, race or age.

He finished his talk with a discussion of the importance of setting specific objectives and program goals for global education language teaching courses and recommended that global language teachers study key publications on evaluation such as the recent issue on testing and evaluation in the JALT Applied Materials series (Brown & Yamashita, 1995). He noted finally that objectives and goals are like a good road map - if you have one, you can easily check how far you've progressed towards your final destination. Without carefully thought out objectives and concrete plans for achieving these, however, no progress is possible. As someone once said, "if you don't care where you are, then you're not lost."

Conclusion

It is hoped that this colloquium helped participants understand basic principles of global education curriculum design and evaluation. The panelists' description of their work showed the kind of innovative programs possible which combine global issues and language learning. The participation of panelists from Korea, Thailand, and Canada show also that a global education approach to language teaching is not solely being tried in Japan but is an international phenomenon promoted by professional language teachers world-wide who are striving to bring an international perspective to their classes as they attempt to teach for a better world.

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Language Textbooks: Help or Hindrance?

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A major challenge for language teachers is to provide learning experiences which meet individual student needs. Materials can be a key contributor to classroom interaction and teachers need, therefore, to choose carefully to ensure that their contribution is positive and enhances language development. This paper investigates attitudes to teaching materials and explores two opposing points of view. The first argues that commercial materials deskill teachers and rob them of their capacity to respond professionally to their students. The second suggests teaching materials can be a useful form of professional development for teachers and can foster autonomous learning strategies in students. This second perspective and the proliferation of teaching materials suggest the issue is not so much whether or not teachers should use commercially prepared materials but rather what form these should take and how they should be used to ensure positive outcomes. The second half of the paper explores 6 key assumptions which the author feels should underpin materials if these are to enhance the learning environment in the language classroom.

Preplanned Teaching Materials: A Help or a Hindrance?

The role of textbooks is a contentious issue for many teachers and researchers concerned with learner-centred programs. Opponents to their use claim that they are for poor, unimaginative teachers, and reinforce teacher-driven instruction (TESL-L internet discussion, 1994 - see Appendix). They also "reduce the teacher's role to one of managing or overseeing preplanned events" (Littlejohn, cited in Hutchinson and Torres, 1994, p. 316), which cannot be responsive to learner needs. Proponents, on the other hand, argue that appropriate materials allow for individualisation by saving teacher time and effort. They also help structure the learning process and give students greater control over their learning.

There appears to be very little research, however, on the exact role of textbooks in the language classroom. The negative position is based on either a deficiency or difference view (Allwright, 1981), both of which challenge the teacher's professionalism. From the deficiency perspective, published materials are needed to make up for teacher shortcomings and to ensure the syllabus is covered using well thought-out exercises. Underlying this view is the assumption that 'good' teachers always know what materials to use and have access to or can create these. They thus neither want nor need published materials.

The difference view is less derogatory with regard to teachers but nevertheless argues that material design is a specialist skill which teachers cannot be expected to have. This view emerged in the TESL-L debate (see Appendix) with several participants suggesting that textbook materials are better than teachers can produce consistently in the time available to them.

Both views assume that teachers will slavishly follow the textbook and let it control classroom interaction, thus failing to respond to learner feedback or challenge received ideas. One of the few studies (Stodolsky, 1989, p. 176), which has actually looked at teacher use of textbooks suggests such a conclusion may not be justified as "teachers are very autonomous in their textbook use" and only a minority actually follow a text in a page-by-page manner.

The role of preplanned materials can be more positive. Appropriate textbooks may, for example, actually help teachers come to terms with new content and ways of tackling this with different learners thus providing "a helpful scaffold for learning to think pedagogically" (Loewenberg Ball & Feiman-Nemser, 1988, p. 421). Indeed textbooks which provide theoretically explicit rationales for the activities proposed can become an essential source of information and support and a medium of on-going professional development for experienced as well as novice teachers (Donoghue, 1992).

Textbooks are also potential agents of change (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994). More research is needed to determine the extent to which they actually change practice or are simply adapted to the status quo. Stodolsky's study (1989) indicates that innovative curriculum packages produce stricter adherence to the suggested content and procedures despite frequent teacher adaptations. Nevertheless, the textbook writer's aims may be overridden by the teacher's implementation skills (Jarvis, 1987) or reading of the text (Apple, 1992).

A final role for textbooks is to serve as a structuring tool. Communicative language classes are social events and so inherently unpredictable and potentially threatening to all participants (Reid, 1994). This is particularly so in periods of change (Luxon, 1994) such as those experienced by language learners or teachers implementing new programs or working with unfamiliar learner groups. One strategy for dealing with this uncertainty is "social routinisation" (the process by which classroom interaction becomes increasingly stereotyped to reduce unpredictability and, thereby, stress). A textbook, from this perspective, does not necessarily drive the teaching process but it does provide structure and predictability and make the event socially tolerable to the participants. It also serves as a useful plan of what is intended, thus providing a basis for negotiation and accountability (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994)

Materials, in other words, do not necessarily deskill teachers. Indeed, as the above discussion suggests, they can be a useful planning and development tool. The issue therefore is not their use but the form they should take to ensure that their contribution to the learning process is positive.

Effective Teaching Materials

Materials obviously reflect the writers' views of language and learning and if they are to scaffold learning, these underlying principles need to be explicit and an object of discussion by both students and teachers. The remainder of this paper looks at the assumptions about language and learning which the author feels reflect our present understanding of the language learning process and should guide materials development.

Language is Functional and Must be Contextualised

To be meaningful, language must be situated in its context of use. Without knowledge of the sociocultural context, it is impossible to understand how language is being used in a given interaction. Contextualised language is also culturally and linguistically rich and can be adapted for use with students of different levels of proficiency. In addition, familiarity with the context allows students to draw on their background knowledge and so assists meaning processing.

One way to build a shared context for learners and their teachers is to use video drama (e.g. Clemens and Crawford, 1995). Visuals provide information about the physical context of the interaction and allow exploration of the nonverbal and sociocultural aspects of language as well as the purely verbal. They also extend the reach of the course beyond the classroom

Language Development Requires Learner Engagement in Purposeful Use of Language

Experiential strategies (Stern, 1992) suggest the focus of input and output materials should be on real texts, language in use, rather than on "building blocks" to be used at some later date. Contextualisation of speaking and writing tasks means appropriate sociocultural choices can be made but also requires the active participation of the learner's whole personality. Indeed, new knowledge is only integrated into the existing language system when the language is used spontaneously and purposefully to express the speaker's/writer's own intent. Such real communication, however, implies the engagement of genuine interest and requires going beyond simply practising use.

The Language Used Should be "Authentic"

An outcome of our understanding that language is a social practice has been an increased call for the use of culturally-rich "authentic" materials rather than the contrived, artificial language often found in traditional textbooks (Grant, 1987; MacWilliam, 1990). The problem with using authentic materials - in Nunan's (1989, p. 54) sense of 'any material which has not been specifically produced for the purpose of language teaching' - is that it is very difficult to find such materials which support the learning process by remaining within manageable fields and recycling the language used. It is also difficult for teachers to obtain a sufficient range of audiovisual materials of an appropriate quality and length. Quality, however, may have an important impact on learner motivation (Hargreaves, 1994).

Materials Need to Present a Range of Genres (both written and spoken)

The need to engage learners in purposeful language use applies to written as well as spoken interaction and, indeed, reading materials can provide the basis for oral work just as oral work may lead to a written response. Materials need, therefore, to be integrated and provide examples which can be used to develop familiarity with the structure of different text types and provide a scaffold to assist with the learners' subsequent attempts to produce their own texts.

The emphasis given to written and spoken genres will reflect the purposes of the program and the options available to teachers and learners. Advances in technology, however, mean that even isolated learners have access to both written and audiovisual materials and so potentially the need for a broad range of written and spoken genres.

Effective Teaching Materials Foster Learner Autonomy

Given the context-dependent nature of language, no language course can predict all the language needs of learners and must seek, therefore, to prepare them to deal independently with the language they encounter in new situations. Providing independent access to sociocultural, generic and linguistic information also gives students more control over their learning. Similarly materials can contribute to an awareness of different learning strategies, thus potentially expanding the learners' repertoire both within and beyond the classroom. Greater self-direction can likewise be encouraged through the inclusion of self-assessment tasks.

Materials Need to be Flexible Enough to Cater for Individual and Contextual Differences

While language is a social practice, learning is largely an individual process as learners seek to integrate newly perceived information into their existing language system. It is essential for teachers to recognise the different backgrounds, experiences and learning styles that learners bring to the language classroom and the impact these have on what aspects of the input are likely to become intake.

At the same time, diversity of response provides a rich source of communicative potential as learners and teachers share their reactions and explore cultural differences. This presupposes that the teacher is prepared to adopt an interpretative rather than a transmissive methodology (Wright, 1987) and adapt the materials to the teaching context. Without opportunities to interact actively with each other, the teacher and the language, students will not be able to confront their hypotheses about how the system is used to convey meaning and then check these against the understanding of others. It is this kind of open interaction which potentially triggers interlanguage development (Ellis, 1991).

Conclusion

This paper has argued that preplanned teaching materials need not restrict teachers and learners but can scaffold their work and serve as agents of change. In selecting materials, of course, practitioners need to look carefully at the principles underpinning them to ensure they contribute positively to the learning environment both in terms of the input they provide and the interaction they provoke.

Teachers obviously need much more information about how they and their students can best use materials to facilitate learning. Wright (1987) suggests we teach *with* rather than *through* materials thus being free to improvise and adapt in response to learner feedback. Effective teaching materials, by providing cultural and linguistic input and a rich selection of integrated activities, are thus a professional tool which can actually assist teachers to be more responsive both by leaving them time to cater to individual needs and by expanding their teaching repertoire. Learners, too, can benefit from access to the materials used in class and the control and structure this allows. Both teachers and materials writers do, of course, walk a tightrope. The teachers' challenge is to maintain the balance between providing a coherent learning experience which scaffolds learner comprehension and production and models effective strategies without losing responsiveness to the unique situation and needs of each learner. The textbook writer's challenge is to provide materials which support, even challenge, teachers and learners and present ideas for tasks and language input without becoming prescriptive and undermining the teachers' and the learners' autonomy. It is a fine balancing.

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Appendix

TESL-L responses in favour of the use of textbooks (and number of times mentioned)

(i)	Materials better than teacher can produce consistently in time	5		
(ii)	Textbook can/should be supplemented or adapted		4	
(iii)	A basis for teacher preparation to meet individual needs		2	
(iv)	Why reinvent the wheel?		2	
(v)	A source of revision/reference for students	2		
(vi)	Students expect teachers to use a textbook		2	
(vii)	NOT using a textbook "a touch of imperialism"		1	
(viii)	Textbooks a basis for negotiation		1	
(ix)	Ss respect books more than handouts		1	
(x)	Textbook provides secure base for individual development		1	
(xi)	Copyright—rights of material writers		1	
(xii)	Cost of copying unjustifed			1
(xiii)	Textbooks (with keys) save teachers/learners time		1	
(xiv)	Texts should be available to teachers as references only	1		

TESL-L responses opposed to the use of textbooks (and number of times mentioned)

(i)	Textbooks boring difficult to understand		1	
(ii)	Textbooks don't do what is wanted of them	1		
(iii)	Cultural difference—"the Australian prejudice"		1	
(iv)	Textbooks are inadequate			1
(v)	Textbooks are inappropriate to learner-centred methodology	1		
(vi)	Textbooks are appropriate in one context not appropriate in another	1		
(vii)	Textbooks are for poor teachers, those without imagination	1		
(viii)	Textbooks reinforce teacher-driven syllabus/reduce teacher response to learner feedback		1	

N=21: Countries of origin of posters: Australia, Canada, Holland, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, South America, Switzerland, Thailand, USA.

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Materials Design for Self-directed Learning

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Introduction

This paper reports on materials design for an English language proficiency program for freshman English-language major students, at Kanda Gaigo Daigaku (Kanda University of International Studies) in Chiba. The course is an experimental project of self-directed learning, which aims to progressively devolve responsibility from teachers to students, over what to study and with whom, over the course of a year. There are many aspects to the project but here we are only concerned with materials design. The paper discusses the philosophical and educational framework, organizational principles and finally examples. In doing so, we analyze our materials at the levels of curriculum, syllabus and task.

Background to Our Project

In second language pedagogy, there has been a shift away from the search for the "ideal" method of instruction which characterized the 1970s, and a gradual abandonment of the centrality of teaching-as-performance. Instead, a recognition of the *varied* perceptions, reactions and learnings of individual learners within classes, has received more attention. Nunan has summarized this more recent understanding of the *individually-differentiated* nature of learning when he examines the frequent mismatch between teaching and learning outcomes (Nunan, 1995). Such a mismatch often occurs because learners have different agendas and focal points of interest from the teacher, and also from other learners. Unavoidably therefore, what is being taught may not be engaging learning, in cognitive and affective terms, at all. Seen in this light, the assumption that teachers can motivate students by selecting and presenting "interesting" topics is rather naive.

Curricula which have been devised in collaboration with learners, in terms of content, have been described before, for example Parkinson and O' Sullivan (1990), but we argue that these do not go far enough. Nunan has expanded his concept of "learner centredness" to include "autonomous learning" as the ultimate stage of a learner-centered curriculum (1995). We agree with this and are gradually involving students in decisions as to what they will study and with who, in regular class. This is a radical break from the lockstep class where all students are more or less studying the same thing at the same time.

Curriculum: a frame for instructional materials

In order to design materials to operate such a program, we first need a coherent theoretical framework. At the level of curriculum, which Candlin (1984) describes as being concerned with making general statements about language learning, learning purpose and experience; we have outlined our context in the previous section.

More specifically, what should be the design principles of our materials? Minimally, we must consider the following factors when designing our own, or exploiting commercially published materials:

- themes and topics
- linguistic features of text
- discourse features of text

- interaction potential (what and with whom)
- roles of learners
- roles of teachers
- learner training
- learner strategies and reflection on the learning process
- evaluation and assessment (concerning learners, learning and materials)

Syllabus and Task

The above form general guidelines and we will now look at our material at the level of syllabus, which is a more local account of what happens at classroom level. The "task" is the building block of our syllabus and basic unit of material design. There are many different definitions of task but Nunan's definition of *communicative* task (1989, p. 10), is relatively succinct: "...a piece of classroom work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form." When designing or modifying tasks, they can be analyzed from the point of view of:

- goals
- input (linguistic or otherwise)
- activities which lead on form input

Other considerations concern role and settings. At a higher level of organization, we must consider the grading, sequencing and integrating of tasks. These comprise the syllabus.

If we have a syllabus organized by task, the system is too arbitrary. So we logically group tasks according to theme, or ideational content area which gives coherence to the syllabus. We can relate these aspects of the curriculum logically as follows:

curriculum
↓
syllabus
↓
theme
↓
task

Task Types

The following is an approximate typology of the task types that we are drawing on. We feel that classifying tasks according to lexical, functional and grammatical categories is not helpful and these are secondary concerns. Instead we have organized our tasks according to their communicative character:

- awareness raising
- learner interactive skills development
- information exchange
- comprehension and exploration of content
- values clarification and discussion
- imagination gap
- role play and creative dramatics
- task/program evaluation (in both cognitive and affective dimensions)

This last task type is a way of embedding learner- training/ reflection activities into the course, much in the same way as in the *Tapestry* coursebook series (Scarcella and Oxford, 1993) or Nunan's *ATLAS* coursebook. We prefer to situate such tasks within a discoursal setting rather than de-contextualizing learner training as in the case of Sinclair and Lewis (1989).

Operationalizing Materials--Our Framework

As described above, our materials consist essentially of tasks which are "chained" (logically and sequentially-related) together to form entities within themes. In selecting what they will do in class, students select themes of interest or relevance to themselves and may also select tasks within themes. Diagram 1 shows the prototypical organization of a theme. Typically, in the first (Content) stage, students focus on analysis tasks of text (aural or written) in order to build schemata in the subject area and also develop their lexical field.

This is necessary before work in the second (process) stage can proceed. Here we have used the terms "content" and "process" as used by Legutke and Thomas (1991, p. 17) where content materials mainly provide input for communication in the target language and where process materials stimulate interaction in the classroom group, creating opportunity for learning and practice.

Borrowing from Stern's (1990) terminology, we wish students to engage in more "analysis"-type tasks at the content stage and more "experiential" tasks at the process stage. Analytic tasks include focus on aspects of language, including phonology, grammar, and discourse; cognitive study of language items where items are made salient and related to other systems; and practice or rehearsal of language items and attention to accuracy. By way of contrast, the more experiential nature of tasks in the process stage includes greater priority of meaning transfer, and fluency over linguistic error avoidance and accuracy, and greater diversity of social interaction.

We see both stages one and two (Diagram 1) as being vital but balance between the two is necessary. Many foreign language classrooms are too heavily weighted towards analytic tasks with little space for meaningful interaction to occur. Such often happens, for example, when students analyze text for comprehension and linguistic features for the majority of class time, then end by very briefly discussing their personal opinions or reactions to the text. Equally unsatisfactorily, some classes may spend the majority of time on project work which has not been situated or grounded in adequate preparation and some analysis of thematic area. The outcomes of such work are often trivial, superficial and overly brief. We see progression from stage one to stage two as being closely related and caution should be taken about stressing one at the expense of the other.

Stage three (peer teaching) is an optional stage which can be exploited, preferably later in the course when students may have developed towards autonomy in their learning. As an example, Assinder (1991) has described a class where learners designed vocabulary, comprehension and discourse tasks; built around TV clips of simplified current affairs, and used these to teach other learners and creates optimal conditions for interaction.

In stage four, learners reflect on their own learning and also the materials they have used; through journals, questionnaires and/or interview. The process of doing this, itself forms learning tasks for students. In a similar way, information from student evaluation of materials gives feedback for deletion, rewriting or reorganization of items. In this way, the framework itself and units of it are flexible and provisional, and are in a constant state of review.

Operationalizing Materials--Example

While Diagram 1 provides a framework, Diagram 2 shows a worked example. Again, this is provisional and is one that we have used recently. The theme is titled "Travel/The World" and includes the experiences and observations of people who have lived, worked or traveled in societies other than their own. In this instance we have used published coursebooks in the content stage in order to set up interaction in the process stage.

Although not apparent in Diagram 2, tasks between the content and process level are chained. For example in the content stage, the reading based on tourist guides of Tokyo will logically be a model for the presentation (video) in the process stage. In the same way, the two listening exercises in the content stage provide schema and lexis which may be exploited, if students wish, to interview someone about "life in another society," as shown in the process stage of the diagram.

Self-direction is alien to the prior learning experience of most of our students so choice about what to study should be introduced gradually. At the beginning of the year, the teacher will select a theme and present some or all of the content materials as a whole class activity. The teacher might then herself nominate groups and set groups the job of choosing an activity in the project stage. If done in class time, the teacher can ensure that negotiating what to do and determining roles is conducted in the target language.

This small group negotiation itself constitutes a task and moreover, the most valuable one. We contend that this negotiation is the only "real world" task that students do, since all our pedagogic tasks are to some extent contrived. It is this authenticity which lends purpose and hence value to the activity.

Conclusion

We have argued that some degree of self-directed learning is desirable and maybe necessary for the development of effective curricula proficiency concerned with second language proficiency. We hope that this description of our work in progress concerning design of instructional materials will be useful to other teachers with similar interests.

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Diagram 1: Stages in a Theme

DIAGRAM 1—STAGES IN A THEME

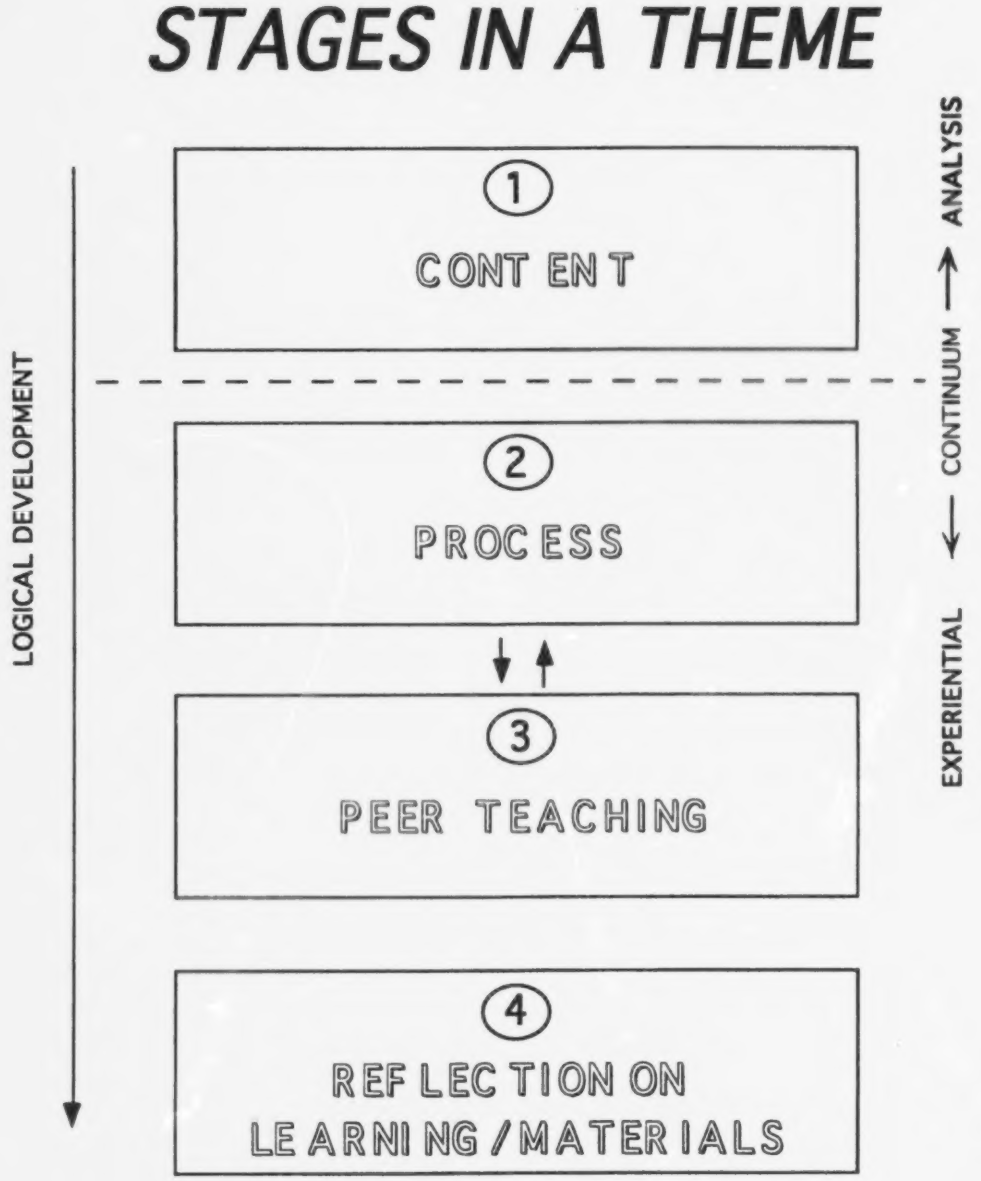

Diagram 2: Sample Theme

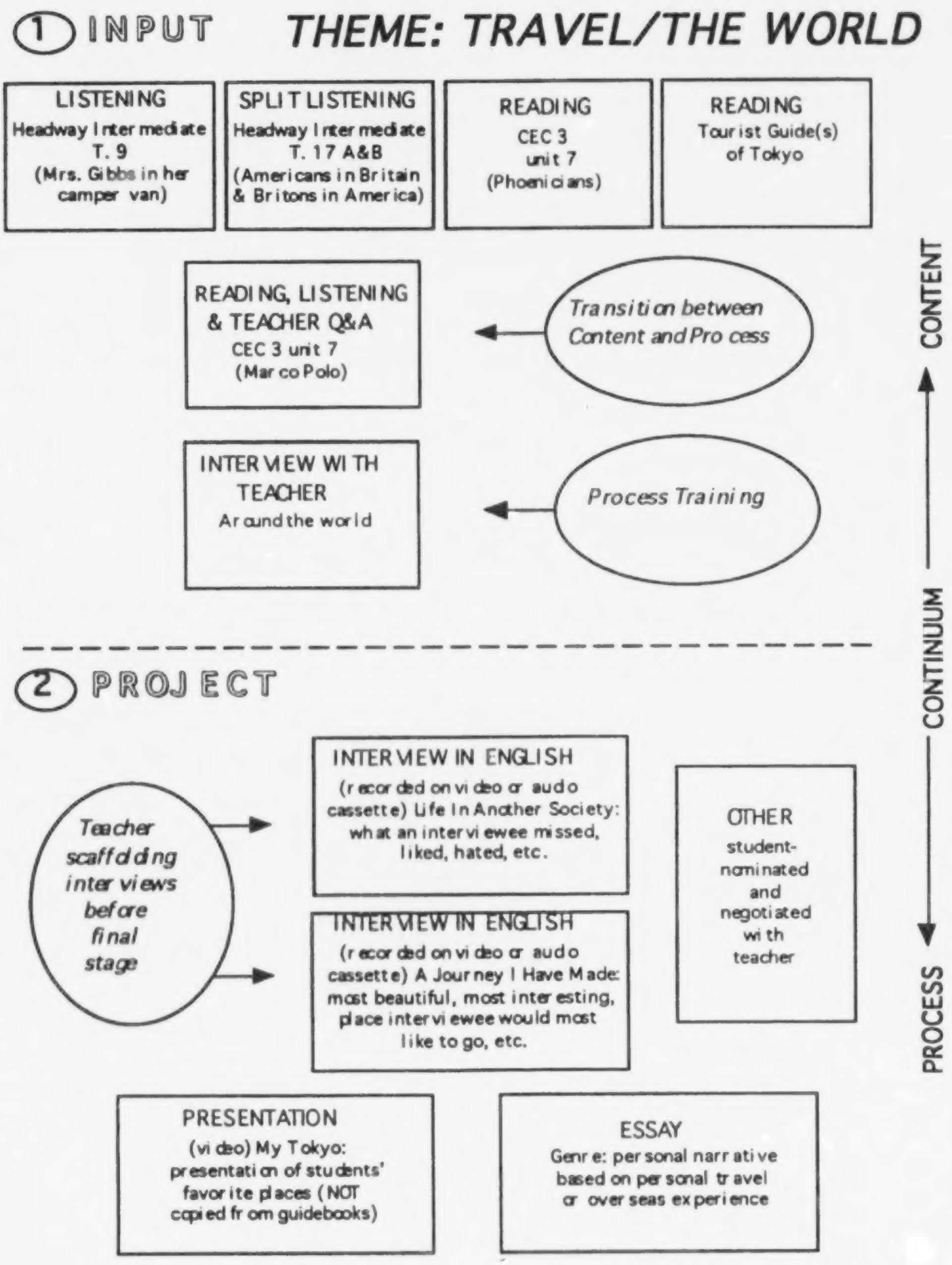
① INPUT
THEME: TRAVEL/THE WORLD
LISTENING
Headway Intermediate
T. 9
(Mrs. Gibbs in her camper van)
SPLIT LISTENING
Headway Intermediate
T. 17 A&B
(Americans in Britain & Britons in America)
READING
CEC 3
unit 7
(Phoenicians)
READING
Tourist Guide(s) of Tokyo
READING, LISTENING & TEACHER Q&A
CEC 3 unit 7
(Marco Polo)
Transition between Content and Process
INTERVIEW WITH TEACHER
Around the world
Process Training
② PROJECT
INTERVIEW IN ENGLISH
(recorded on video or audio cassette) Life In Another Society: what an interviewee missed, liked, hated, etc.
Teacher scaffolding interviews before final stage
INTERVIEW IN ENGLISH
(recorded on video or audio cassette) A Journey I Have Made: most beautiful, most interesting, place interviewee would most like to go, etc.
OTHER
student-nominated and negotiated with teacher
PRESENTATION
(video) My Tokyo: presentation of students' favorite places (NOT copied from guidebooks)
ESSAY
Genre: personal narrative based on personal travel or overseas experience
CONTENT
CONTINUUM
PROCESS

Diagram 2: Sample Theme (continued)

---

③ BEYOND PROJECTS

PEER TEACHING
student-created
listening exercises, etc.

---

④ REFLECTION ON LEARNING

Student assesses advisibility or profitability of goals set, choices made, strategies used, etc. and uses this assessment in modification of learning plan

Vocabulary notebooks are kept throughout the cycle, independent of theme--necessary in the EFL situation

Developing Business English Materials for Japan

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The Institutional Context

The context of this study is the curriculum innovation project effected at Kanda Institute of Foreign Languages (KIFL), a two-year vocational college in Tokyo. Students follow core courses in general and occupational English, computer skills and Japanese business practices. They obtain credits by following courses in one or more electives - the hotel or tourism industries, general business, foreign languages, and translation/interpretation. There are approximately 110 Japanese and 80 expatriate faculty members. Expatriate faculty are mainly American but there are also teachers of thirteen other nationalities. Administrators are predominantly Japanese.

The great majority of students graduating from KIFL, in common with many other vocational college, junior college, and university students, will never participate in high-level contract negotiations or make important boardroom decisions. Instead, they are involved in lower level but still important transactions providing goods and services. This was confirmed by research that also indicated that contrary to received wisdom, a large number of the graduates use English in some way in their jobs, whether talking to foreigners over the telephone, reading incoming international facsimile messages, or completing order forms (Goodman & Orikasa, 1993). We report briefly on the tasks they engage in and the language skills required to complete these tasks in a later section of this paper.

Curriculum Renewal Project Context

The development of the materials described in this paper was not done as an isolated initiative. The institution was undergoing curriculum reform and the workplace/business English materials were only one aspect of this renewal project, briefly described in this section.

Research teams, consisting of faculty and administration volunteers, were set up as part of the collaborative curriculum renewal process. Early teams researched student needs and aspirations, using a number of data sources - students, teachers, employers, high schools. Concurrent teams formulated curriculum aims, goals and exit level objectives. Subsequent teams conducted research into current theory and practice in the teaching and learning of vocabulary, grammar, listening, reading and writing, and into learner styles and strategies and discourse and pragmatics. A further team researched current thinking in learner assessment and developed procedures and instruments which would enable teachers and administrators to obtain diagnostic assessment information on their learners.

By the time that materials developers were appointed, there was a wealth of information for them to draw upon. Both the general English and the workplace English course writers had available to them information on what students needed and wanted, on current language learning theory. They also had access to a reference list of task types that teachers considered most suitable for KIFL students. When we started planning the workplace English course materials, however, we discovered that while we had this substantial data bank to draw upon, there was still something missing. We discuss in the next section what information had already been obtained, how this was done and what information we found missing.

Data Collection

Needs Analysis - Purposes

Before the curriculum renewal project was initiated at KIFL, workplace English courses followed a traditional grammar-translation, chalk and talk approach. One aim of the project was to create a tailor-made, task-based course which would enable students to acquire the language skills they need when they enter the work force.

The first stage of the materials development process, therefore, involved ethnographic research into the tasks that KIFL graduates actually complete at work. We aimed to determine what kinds of companies the graduates work in, the regularity of English usage in the workplace, the tasks the graduates perform in English, and the language skills they need to perform these tasks. A final aim was to collect real-world reading and speaking texts to use as authentic input.

Development of Procedures

A series of interviews was planned with employers and graduates to collect the data. The main focus was initially on managers/supervisors, since it was felt that they would have a more thorough understanding of their industry. The initial plan was to survey the 200 companies which regularly employ KIFL graduates. However, we were advised that on past experience, only 3% of companies would reply, since this was the typical response rate for surveys sent without notice to companies and schools.

We therefore decided on the more practical idea of interviewing a stratified sample of 20 companies. From an analysis of the data on companies which had recruited KIFL graduates in 1991-1993 we determined that the graduates were recruited by four main types of employers. Twenty-nine percent of the graduates went to service industries such as hotels, airlines, airports, tourist agencies. A similar proportion was employed by trading houses and manufacturers. Twenty-one percent were recruited by banks or other financial institutions. The same percentage worked in transportation companies.

We selected five companies from each of these groups on the basis of the companies recruiting the highest number of graduates, and produced questionnaires focusing on four areas:

1. What tasks do our graduates handle in the workplace?
2. How often are these tasks carried out?
3. What English skills are needed for these tasks?
4. Can you give us any samples of language text or realia?

The only difference between the surveys was the list of tasks that appeared on the questionnaire. For example, 'checking in guests' appeared on the hotel questionnaire, but not on the bank questionnaire. 'Handling foreign exchange transactions' appeared on both the hotel form and the bank form but not on the trading company form.

Twenty interviews were conducted, mainly in Japanese, using English and Japanese questionnaires. The employers promised to supply the real-world texts after the interviews. However, they were generally reluctant to hand over any documents or texts, other than annual reports.

Data analysis

After data collection, we felt we had sufficient information to be able to proceed with writing materials. We felt that we knew the different proportions of industries where the graduates work, the tasks they engage in using English, and the language skills they need to perform these tasks. This section describes briefly some of the more salient findings, described in detail in Goodman & Orikasa (1993).

We found, for example, that graduates in the travel services (hotels, airlines, airports, travel agencies) perform a greater range of tasks than those in the other industries. These service industry tasks include checking in passengers or guests, handling reservations, and foreign exchange transactions, which are speaking and listening tasks, and reading and writing tasks such as itinerary planning. We noted that speaking and listening are very important in the manufacturing and transportation industries.

This was in contrast to the belief held before conducting the research that these skills were not so necessary in these industries. Tasks which require speaking and listening ability in these industries include taking messages and dealing with queries on the telephone. Concerning reading and writing, we discovered employees are primarily involved in completing pro-forma documents, rather than producing new text. These documents include purchase orders, invoices, and shipping documents.

Refinement of Data Collection Process

At the beginning of the writing stage we relied on the list of task types derived from the questionnaire forms. However, the information was insufficient. We knew what tasks the graduates did - for example, handling orders - and that reading and writing skills were involved, but we did not know what these tasks entailed exactly. We did not know enough about workplace *procedures* to be able to develop pedagogic tasks.

Another round of interviews was therefore necessary to learn more about these workplace procedures. Much of this additional research was informal as the focus was shifted away from line managers to the graduates themselves, who were far less secretive, and who provided a wealth of documents. One illustration of this is a graduate who supplied completed order forms, and explained to us the entire procedure relating to international ordering.

Materials Development

Overall Structure

After examining the needs analysis survey data, we structured our materials around the four sectors where KIFL graduates are most commonly employed: banking, hotel, airport, and general office locations. We added a fifth location, the restaurant, because many of our students already have part-time jobs in this setting. They are familiar with this context and can grasp the reality of the workplace tasks set there.

Task Selection

We based our real-world tasks on the needs analysis data plus data obtained during subsequent visits to companies. As described earlier, KIFL graduates in the workplace were the most productive data source for obtaining information on specific job duties and on how English was involved in fulfilling these duties. We also consulted Japanese part-time teachers at KIFL since many of these had worked in the airline industry, trading companies, banks, and other businesses relevant to the locations we had chosen.

After this second round of data collection, we listed all the possible tasks, then pared down the list (omitting tasks that were too technical, too complicated, or not applicable to a wide enough range of jobs). Three task chains were selected for a unit of material for each sector - examples of task chains would be 'describing a product' in the office sector, or 'checking-in passengers' in the airport unit (Healy & Tapp, 1995). We finally consulted our sources again to check the authenticity of the tasks we had chosen.

Development of Pedagogic Tasks

As indicated earlier, the initial research did not provide the textual information we needed for pedagogic task development. We needed, for example, hotel services directories, maps, and bank ATM brochures to use in creating tasks. These documents, while authentic and containing authentic language, had to be scaled down because they could not easily be included in the materials - a common dilemma facing materials developers using authentic data. In some instances we assembled components from several sources to make a generic document such as a restaurant menu. Finally we checked again with our sources to see if the tasks and input texts were realistic.

Development of Task Chain Template

Our task chain template consists of the following components:

> *Task checklist:* This gives students a chance to survey what they will be learning.
> *Consider this:* This section sets the context for the task and establishes what kinds of transactions are involved in a particular setting.
> *Focus on this:* This reading or listening section involves either a workplace transaction or an input that acquaints students with something related to the workplace. It also provides language needed for completion of the productive part of the task.
> *Practice this:* This section involves controlled speaking or writing practice using language from the input previously worked on.
> *Build on this:* In this section students transfer the language they have learned and apply it to new situations.
> *Try this yourself:* Project-based activities requiring students to select from a range of options and create an original piece of work through a process of individual or group research. This section thus allows the student to go beyond the scaled down pieces of authentic data that they has dealt with and begin to process longer stretches of text.
> *Task checklist with checkbox*: The list reappears with checkboxes to provide an opportunity to reflect upon what has been studied. By checking off the tasks they have completed, students gain a sense of accomplishment, we feel, and a clear statement of what they have learned.

Evaluative Feedback

Evaluative feedback and suggestions from a number of people were incorporated into the materials. The project director, as series editor, gave comments and suggestions on the content, progression, appropriacy and variety of tasks, and the clarity of rubrics. We also received feedback from KIFL teachers and administration members who commented on the authenticity and structure of tasks. Finally we received classroom-based feedback from teachers using the material. This included information on student response, problems encountered, coverage of the material, and how to improve tasks. Without this important feedback information, we would not have been able to develop appropriate and realistic materials.

Issues of Authenticity

Though we aimed for authenticity in our tasks, a pedagogical task can never be exactly the same as a real world task. For reasons of time, space, or simplicity, a textbook task must be a compressed version of a real world task. The essential connection to the real world must be made through the context supplied by the teacher or by the student's own research. The project work undertaken by the student extends the context of the task and changes her view of the world as she received it through the textbook. The learner authenticates the text/task by comparing the way things happen in a real situation with their experience of that task or situation in the textbook. The student's world view becomes more realistic and takes into account the variety and ambiguity of the world as it is. We hope that this project work will make the students more comfortable and more able to cope with their real workplace situations when they take up employment.

We feel that we are providing a context, arming the students with information and language, and sending them out into the real world, first to do projects and then to complete similar tasks in real world jobs. We aim to build student confidence by providing them with the background knowledge and language skills that are needed to complete workplace tasks in English and to make them into a successful international worker.

Conclusion

The process of writing task based materials based on authentic data is necessarily complex, particularly where this is a done as part of a larger curriculum renewal process. The obtaining of data on which to base the creation of pedagogic tasks might seem straightforward to organize but this proved not to be the case. This project used several different data sets but when the actual process of writing began, it soon became clear that despite the richness of the data obtained, there was still something lacking. Perhaps this is inevitable. Detailed course and materials planning can clearly not be done before research and data collection. It is, however, difficult if not impossible to decide what detailed data are required exactly until later in the process. The solution would thus seem to be something similar to what was adopted in this project: a preliminary data collection period followed by some course and materials structural planning in a fairly broad way. Only when writers begin to plan the pedagogic tasks, will they be in a position to know exactly which data are lacking and where and how they can best obtain these data. The process is thus cyclical in nature, further refinement and greater detail being required at each successive stage. This would seem to be the most practical way forward for similar writing projects in other contexts.

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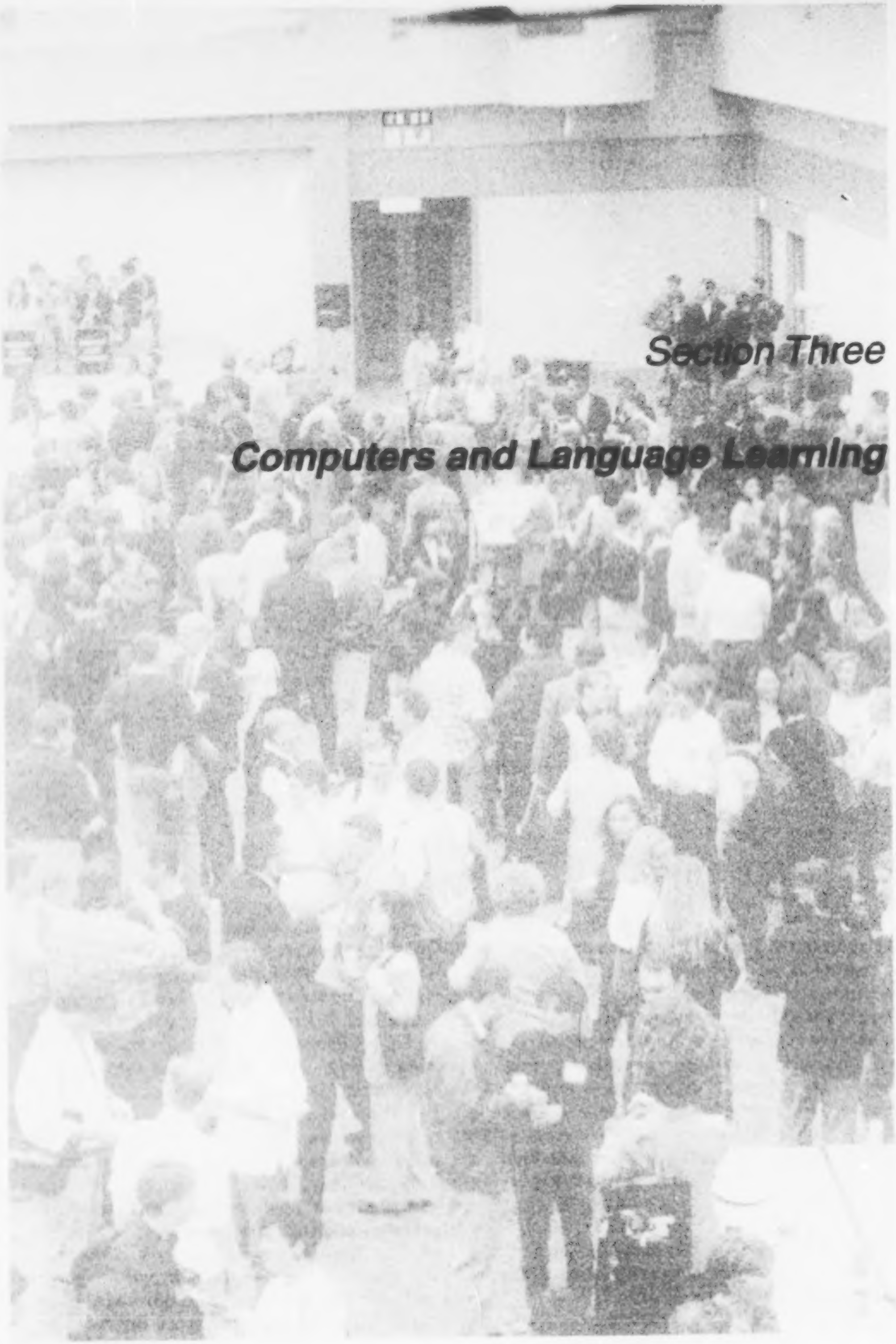
Section Three

Computers and Language Learning



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Computers, Language Learning, and the Four Skills

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In 1993 the CALL National Special Interest Group (N-SIG), in cooperation with the Nagoya Chapter of JALT and Kinjo University, sponsored a conference on using computers to teach composition. We felt at the time that teachers in Japan would be most likely to get started using computer assisted language learning (CALL) by teaching writing, and the proceedings of that conference (Kluge, et al., 1994) show the broad range of computer-based activities teachers were doing even then. The reports in this current paper show how teachers are expanding their horizons to teach all language skills using CALL.

Speaking

Albert Dudley discusses how computers can be used in the conversation classroom to help students develop communicative skills.

Research on the use of computers to promote conversation between students has centered on the use of text-based and simulation programs. CALL studies have performed discourse analyses of transcripts of student interactions using a coding scheme developed by Long, Adams, and Castaños(1976) and later adapted and modified by Piper (1986). Researchers have found that the software and tasks brought about a mixed quality and quantity of discourse.

The reason for this variation was felt to be a result of the software's objectives since text-based programs were not necessarily aimed at fostering conversation but rather to help the students' grammatical and lexical ability. Text-based programs such as *Article, Gapmaster, Choice Master, Crossword Challenge, Pinpoint, Clozemaster,* and *Copywrite* are based on tasks whose ultimate goals are realized through multiple-choice, gap-filling, hangman-style word guessing, text reconstruction, and crossword puzzles activities.

These software programs were originally developed for single users. Conversation was brought about by placing two or three students in front of one computer and asking them to solve a problem together. However, Piper (1986) termed this style of conversation "spin off" and did not consider it to be meaningful discourse.

The result of studies that quantified such "spin off" reported little group cooperation and more individualistic traits in the learners (Abraham & Liou, 1991; Levy & Hinckfuss, 1990; Piper, 1986). This was described as a "self access" mode (Piper, 1986, p. 194) because students did not need to rely on other students to find the solutions—they would in many instances find the answers independently either by looking at the computer screen or by using their own language knowledge.

Simulations, on the other hand, showed more potential for use of computers in the conversation classroom. Three studies have shown the potential for the use of simulation programs. Research using a simulation program called *Kingdom* (Jones, 1986; Murillo, 1991) produced the best results when students were given different roles to play, and as Murillo states, "an instructor can start with a simple game and create an interactive and communicative environment for students to operate in" (p. 21). Other simulation programs also were deemed valuable to students' interaction; research using programs such as *Lemonade Stand* (Abraham & Liou, 1991) and *Who Killed Sam Rupert* (Dudley, 1995) have also reported favorable results.

Kingdom and *Lemonade Stand* have one key feature in common: they require the student(s) to make decisions, whether it be how to run a kingdom— i.e. how much wheat to sow and land to plow—or how much lemonade to prepare on a foggy day and what price per glass is competitive to make a profit. These studies found that not only did the students converse with each other, but they also cooperated as a team.

Who Killed Sam Rupert (Gilligan, 1992) is an interactive murder mystery with video, animation, and sound. There are videos of interrogations of suspects and a great number of clues to decipher in order to find out "who done it." This study found that the students worked together in order to reconstruct what they had just heard separately, then tried to apply this knowledge to the mystery of who killed Sam Rupert.

The quality of discourse shows promise. Many instances of confirmation checks, clarification requests, and comprehension checks were found, but most importantly many instances of repairs were found in the students' discourse.

One more avenue of research is the use of information gap exercises on the computer. The assumption is that if more communication is required then a greater quantity and quality of interaction will be observed (Doughty & Pica 1986; Varonis & Gass 1985). One setup to encourage communication is to turn the monitors away from the students. I have done this with a paint program and a commercial software package by Broderbund called *Spelunx*. No data was collected using the paint program but my general observations and the students' reactions seem favorable.

In May of 1995, Paul Lewis and I began a joint research project to quantify the conversations between students using *Spelunx*. Based on my classroom experimentation with information gaps (paint programs, *Spelunx*, and *Cosmic Osmo*) from the previous year, and Lewis' theoretical paper on information gap exercises with computers (Lewis, 1994), we hypothesized that meaningful discourse would develop and be beneficial to the students' interlanguage development.

Although *Spelunx* may be labeled merely a navigational task in which students travel through tunnels, thereby limiting the quality of discourse, preliminary findings reveal that the quantity and quality of the discourse does resemble that of simulation programs. The data clearly shows instances of repairs on the part of the students, yet no instances of comprehension checks have been coded. It appears that this is due to the fact that the software is purely graphical in nature: no vocabulary or spoken words are given to the students by the program.

In summary, simulation programs, if implemented carefully, and the use of information gap exercises hold promising benefits for the communicative syllabus in the computer classroom.

Listening

Patricia Thornton looks at how computers can be used for developing listening skills.

This article will provide an overview of some of the relevant ideas and research studies. There is little research in this area due to the fairly recent widespread availability of CD-ROM and internal digitialized speech. So, the research is just beginning and the use of computers in this area is evolving. In order to understand the issues involved we must first look at listening comprehension theory, and then apply it to the computer environment.

In the 1980's the emphasis in teaching

listening comprehension shifted from bottom-up processing to top-down processing. In bottom-up processing, students focus on sounds, words, and grammatical structures while listening. In top-down processing, students predict before listening and work on getting the gist of what was heard using background knowledge and other contextual information. This is very similar to the schema theory in reading. More recently, listening theorists have proposed that top-down and bottom-up processes interact and that listeners can compensate for their inadequacies with one type of processing by using information from the other.

Much of the current methodology related to listening is based, in part, on our understanding of how native speakers comprehend. In fact, research suggests that there are similarities between L1 and L2 listeners' comprehension processes (Conrad, 1985; Voss, 1984; Cook, 1973). The differences, often a matter of degree rather than type, are important to our understanding of the L2's problems in listening comprehension.

One fact we know from L1 research is that native speakers, when processing sentences, understand and immediately discard from memory the systemic parts such as specific grammatical structure, and store only the propositional content, or meaning (Clark, 1977). Native speakers are able to do this because their use and understanding of systemic knowledge is automatic. They have internalized the rules and meanings attached to those rules so that they are used in comprehension almost unconsciously. For the L2 speaker, the degree to which they can use the systemic knowledge automatically will vary greatly (Dornic, 1979).

Current trends in textbooks and listening courses tend to be toward top-down processing, especially at intermediate and advanced levels. Several listening texts used in universities in Japan were analyzed, and all used a top-down approach. If recent theories are right, and students need both top-down and bottom-up processing, then this focus on schema-based approaches will leave the student inadequately prepared for full comprehension. They will not develop the form to such an extent that its use becomes automatic. In addition, some studies suggest that learners below a certain threshold of language proficiency are unable to activate their top-down processing skills (Clarke, 1979, 1980). On the other hand, earlier research in listening comprehension showed that a bottom-up approach alone is also ineffective. Focusing on form at the expense of constructing associative links leads to incomplete understanding and difficulty in retention. Some studies have shown that the use of schemata can actually compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up processing (Adams, 1982; Cummins 1980).

As educators, we are challenged to find a way to provide practice in both processes. The realities of classes in Japan are few contact hours and segmented courses. It is in this position that I believe computers can help us achieve our goals. Let's consider the strengths of today's microcomputers. They can:

- provide comprehensible input
- provide endless repetition
- be interactive
- give immediate feedback
- combine different kinds of media: visual, text, auditory
- allow the amount and kind of information to be controlled and altered

Considering these strengths, it seems the computer can very effectively handle the training of bottom-up processing. If classes and texts focus on schema-based approaches, work in computer labs can offer the systemic processing that students need to gain skills to become automatic in their understanding and use of grammar and other elements of form.

The research in this area is minimal, but there are a few early studies. Hubbard (1995) of Stanford University used teacher-made listening materials on Hypercard. The materials were sentence-level processing activities. He was investigating students' perceptions of the computer and materials. The results were positive. Students acknowledged the value of the computer activities, and half of them recommended additional computer activities for future courses. Of course, this study deals only with affective factors.

Despain (1995) of North Carolina State University compared traditional listening labs with computer labs. This study had two parts. In Part 1, his results showed that attitudes were more positive toward computerized versions of the activities. In Part 2, data was collected on the amount of time used in each environment. Results showed that students tend to repeat activities more often using computerized listening comprehension exercises, compared with the lab manual and cassette of traditional labs.

Neither of these studies is conclusive nor complete. I hope to see much more data in the future. As a language teacher, I believe that computers can provide better input and more interesting and varied formats than traditional language labs, and that students will use them more effectively, thus increasing the time and attention given to listening comprehension activities that focus on systemic elements.

What software is now available? There are four kinds of software in listening: word and sentence-level drills, conversations and drills embedded in tutorial programs, pronunciation drills, and longer discourse in simulations or stories that were not designed for EFL learners. Many of these programs give 1-3 sentence utterances and then ask students to respond in a variety of ways. Most give instant feedback, and allow students the option of hearing the utterance as many times as needed by simply clicking a button on the screen. Graphics are often included to increase contextual information.

There are also other possible uses of the computer in listening. The computer could be a stimulus that promotes conversation, integrating speaking and listening comprehension skills. This could involve the use of authoring software or problem-solving activities. Group activities with simulations or information software could generate both listening and speaking opportunities.

In conclusion, the computer seems to be a good tool for practicing bottom-up listening strategies. Inherent in its nature is the ability to produce many and varied short utterances, allow students to interact and respond, and give immediate feedback to help students learn about their own listening skills. We might even say that one thing the computer can be is an enhanced listening lab. Its multimedia ability improves the kind of input, and the technology enables students to have more control over their learning. Early research seems to indicate that students enjoy the computer and thus spend more time on task. The use of the computer for task-based, communicative learning that involves the integrated use of listening skills is also possible, but research data is not yet available in this area. Hopefully more and better data will be forthcoming in the near future.

Reading

Paul Jaquith provides guidelines to use in looking for a good reading program.

A Case for Teaching Reading

In the hoopla following the communicative revolution in language teaching, instruction in reading has dropped through the cracks in many language programs. Yet needs analyses show that for the vast majority of students it remains the most important of the four skills. The teacher who provides his or her students with better access to written English is providing them with a valuable skill indeed.

The decision to use the computer to teach reading is a bold one, and needs careful thought and preparation on the part of the teacher. To date, I know of no programs that I would advocate simply turning students loose under the pretext of "teaching" them how to read, though there are a number of programs that provide students with practice in certain areas. The vast majority of "reading programs" are nothing more than textbook exercises put on the computer, and are far inferior to their paper and pencil equivalents. Others are more explorations in what we *can* do with the computer than what we should be doing. Thus any approach taken to teach reading with the computer should be undertaken with an understanding of the important principles underlying the reading process, and should be pedagogically defensible. Moreover, teachers should proceed with the understanding that good intentions are not enough, and that students can be taught in a way that makes it nearly impossible for them to learn how to read.

Second Language Reading Theory

Second language reading theories have drawn heavily on first language models and research. Those interested in a deeper understanding of the history and issues involved should read Barnett (1989) or Funnell and Stuart (1995) for accessible and balanced overviews. Those interested in something more biased and dogmatic should read Smith (1994).

Two areas where second language reading theory has made particularly notable advances are in schema theory and reading strategies. Schema theory focuses on two distinct areas: content schemata and formal schemata. Both are important for reading instruction. Content schemata refers to the student's background knowledge. This includes specific content knowledge, such as knowledge of chemistry, biology, or physics, and general knowledge of how the world works, which may be heavily influenced by culture. Formal schemata refers to knowledge of text structure and rhetorical organization. Just a little reading in these areas can help generate a tremendous number of ideas for teachers interested in developing or adapting computer programs for reading. For example, Jones and Fortescue recommend using a flexible program called Storyboard to help students develop an awareness of different kinds of rhetorical structure. Research shows both that certain rhetorical structures and patterns are problematic for second language learners, and that explicit training in recognizing these patterns helps students in their reading. (Barnett, 1989)

Reading strategies help students to learn *how* to read, and perhaps more importantly how not to read. Teaching reading strategies to Japanese students may be particularly important because of the way they learn to read in their own language. Research shows that readers are unable to take in as much at one glance when the writing system is vertical rather than horizontal. Thus Japanese students may have developed reading skills that are oriented more toward the sentence level. (Rayner & Pollatsek, 1989)

Bernhardt's Constructivist Model (discussed in Barnett, 1989) offers a visual representation of how different components of cognition interact in the reading process. The six components are 1) prior knowledge, 2) phonemic/graphemic features, 3) word recognition, 4) syntactic feature recognition, 5) intratextual perceptions, and 6) metacognition. These are particularly useful to teachers selecting or designing computer programs to help students with their reading. For example, there are a number of programs commercially available that help students with letter recognition and in developing phonological awareness, both of which are highly correlated with successful learners in the beginning stages. Flexible word recognition programs also abound. These programs take advantage of the infinite patience of the computer.

Computers

Jones and Fortescue (1987) place CALL reading programs into three general groups: incidental reading, reading comprehension, and text manipulation. Incidental reading programs are those where reading is required to successfully complete an activity but is not the focus of the activity. One might call them reading incentive programs. These would include games, mazes and simulations. Reading comprehension programs follow the more traditional Q&A format found in any reading text book. The vast majority of these can be done better using paper and pencil. They include in this group the horrible speed reading programs, which they actually advocate. In these programs the text gradually disappears, as if someone were pulling down a curtain. The idea here is that students will have a strong incentive for reading faster and more efficiently and will there by graduate to faster speeds. Rubbish! Text manipulation programs are also called text mutilation programs. These include cloze-building programs, which are great for testing and for preparing students for standardized tests, and various programs that scramble words, sentences, paragraphs, and texts. These will be of use depending on how the teacher decides to exploit them.

What follows is a brief check list for teachers thinking about using a computer program for teaching reading.

- What reading skill is the program designed to teach?
- Is the program significantly better than its paper equivalent?
- Can the student successfully complete the task without doing the reading?
- What reading strategies are necessary to complete the task?
- Will the effects on your student's reading ability be positive or negative?
- Will students like it?
- What is the language level?

Writing (Part 1)

Teaching writing is still the foremost means of using CALL in Japan. In the first of two sections on writing, Jay Lundelius looks at using computers for peer critiquing.

Technology has made possible a new level of peer critiquing that is generating a lot of excitement in writing classrooms. Basically, peer critiquing involves having students look at each other's writing and offer comments on how to improve it. But now students are able to engage in writing, revising, and critiquing each other's work while typing on their computers, resulting in more active involvement with the writing process.

Peer critiquing is a valuable way to get students to interact more with their writing; they engage in a critiquing process based on feedback from their fellow students. One advantage to having students critiquing their peers' writing is that peers may be regarded as sympathetic with what a student is trying to say and the difficulties faced in trying to say it. Accordingly, peer critiquers are viewed as collaborators rather than as judges. Another advantage is that students recognize peer revisers as "non-experts." Paradoxically, this may cause the writer to consider *more* carefully the suggestions and criticisms that are made. Since teachers are so often viewed as experts whose judgments are almost inarguably correct, students do not so much interact with their teachers' criticism as submit to it. However, when students get advice from other students, they recognize that the criticism might well be invalid. As a result, the writers are motivated to consider peer criticism more carefully in order to see if it is well-founded.

Increasingly, schools are networking their computers. The term "network" means that all of the computers are connected to a central computer, through which each of the classroom computers can send and receive information to others on the network. With networked computers, students are able to engage in on-line, synchronous peer critiquing; that is, they can send and receive comments about each other's writing while each is engaged in the process of writing. But beyond the networking hardware, teachers should carefully consider the software that they will use with it. Online peer critiquing can become a management nightmare if students save their files to the wrong disk, use incorrect file names, or accidentally delete files. The chief advantage to using software designed specifically for peer critiquing is that it simplifies the gathering and distribution of individual student texts. Various companies have come up with software specifically for on-line peer critiquing. The one we use at Chinese University is called the *Daedalus Integrated Writing Environment*—sometimes known as DIWE ("dee-wee"), sometimes simply known as "Daedalus." With Daedalus (and other programs like it, such as *CompuTeach*), it is much easier for students to send and receive, as well as to save, store, and retrieve files than it is with current standard system software such as *Novell* or *Appleshare*.

In our Daedalus classrooms, a student writes text, either self-generated or in response to programmed questions. When the writer is satisfied with what's been written, he or she sends the text to what might be called a "billboard," at which point, it appears on every student's screen. The other students may respond to that text or ignore it. Each student can work at his or her own speed. Students who are slow at typing, or who simply prefer to spend more time revising before displaying their work, may take as long as they wish, ignoring comments on the billboard until they feel inclined to engage in the discussion. Comments can be sent back and forth publicly or privately. A student's comments can also be sent under a pseudonym; this may encourage students to be more open in their remarks. (If this feature is abused—if an anonymous writer's comments become irrelevant or destructive to the work at hand—this feature can be turned off so that all comments are attributed.) Occasionally, students may involve others in the discussion, asking about someone else's comments: "She says she's not sure how my examples prove my point. Does anyone else see how?"

As students become more aware of how their writing looks to others, they become more engaged with revising for clarity. As students learn to read more critically and to identify deficiencies and points of confusion in other students' writings, they will become more skilled at identifying such problems in their own writing. With online synchronous critiquing among peers, writing becomes an active process of communicating ideas.

Writing (Part 2)

The World Wide Web (WWW) is opening exciting ways to teach ESL. Steve Tripp takes a step back to provide a framework with which to look at all kinds of learning and specifically writing and then offers the WWW as a way to apply that framework.

The axes of a skills matrix are closed/open, and discrete/continuous. Closed skills refer to those which embody a "correct" procedure; open skills have no one "correct" form. For example, setting the time on a digital watch, a closed skill, has a defined procedure which, if followed, normally guarantees success. On the other hand, a game such as chess, although having closed components, has no set of moves which guarantee success. Chess playing, like most complex activities, is an open skill.

Discrete skills may be thought of as skills which are under no time constraints. Such procedures may be performed slowly with interruptions and still achieve success. An example of a discrete skill is programming a VCR.

In contrast, continuous skills are skills performed under a time constraint. The time constraint is a result of the fact that these skills involve reacting to a continuously changing situation which is at least partly out of the control of the actor. These skills often involve continuous motion, such as swimming or dancing. In addition to such physical skills, many business skills, like negotiating or interviewing, are also continuous.

By combining the two axes, one can produce a 2x2 skills matrix. One important instructional difference between open and closed skills is the kinds of examples that the students are exposed to. Since closed skills have a "correct" form, the instructor will expose the students to that form. Students can practice by mimicking the correct performance and, very often, simple right-or-wrong feedback will suffice because students can check their performance against the correct model. Many grammar rules are like this.

With open skills there is no "correct" form. What should the instructor use for examples? When we listen to the introspections of highly skilled professionals we often hear them referring to the people who influenced them. Musicians, painters, and architects typically concede the importance of being exposed to "masters" or "masterpieces" early in their careers. Art students are exposed to great art in our museums. Architects study Greek and Roman buildings as well as modern masterpieces. Traditionally, those who aspire to professional competence do so by exposing themselves to the best the profession has to offer. For complex discrete skills, such as architecture or painting, they study the *products* of the masters. Those who aspire to continuous skills, such as acting or singing, study the *performances* of the masters.

Complex language performance is either open-discrete or open-continuous behavior. Writing is open-discrete and conversation is open-continuous. What is necessary to master the open-discrete skill of writing in a foreign language?

To answer this question we need a theory of the learning of cognitive skills. Anderson (1983, 1993) makes a distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative knowledge consist of chunks. Chunks may be *propositions, strings*, or *images*. *Proceduralization* and *composition* are the process whereby declarative knowledge is translated into a form which allows automatic application. Proceduralization creates *productions*, which are the basic units of skilled behavior (procedural knowledge).

There are several important differences between declarative and procedural knowledge. Declarative learning is abrupt and direct. Procedural learning is gradual and inductive. Forgetting is slow for procedural knowledge, but quick for declarative knowledge. The learning of skills requires exposure to examples and practice.

Because skills (procedural knowledge) are acquired inductively, students must be exposed to examples. Under this analysis, a serious flaw with many writing courses is that students do not have access to sufficient examples of the kind of writing they are being asked to produce.

The World Wide Web (WWW) provides an elegant solution to this problem. In addition, to the many original sources already available for reference, a teacher can easily load examples onto a server and make them available to the students. These reference sources can be enhanced with hypertext mark-ups which call the students' attention to important features or give explanations of aspects which may be unclear at first.

When writing in the native language one has intuitions about the appropriateness or inappropriateness of certain words or phrases. By allowing students to query text-bases, they can obtain contextualized information about English usage. An example of this for French is working at the University of Chicago (URL http://www.ncsa.uiuc.aedu/SDG/IT94/ Proceedings/Educ/ lieberman/lieberman.html). Part of this project allows students to see how the verb, *finir*, for example, is actually used by retrieving a large number of authentic examples

When we are learning foreign languages, we often need to use expressions that we haven't mastered yet. Writing students should have access to spelling, style, and grammar rules in a convenient way. These can be assembled as WWW documents or they could be part of a rules database which could be accessed through a WWW forms page.

The main mechanism by which students turn knowledge into skills is practice. Writing consists of both closed and open skills. Practice in closed discrete skills can be easily put on-line. Drills of various types with randomization can be part of a WWW forms page by using *cgis* to access authentic or canned problems. Since the area of practice and the range of examples as well as the difficulty level can be controlled by the student, individualized writing practice can be made available locally or globally.

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Creating Your Own Software—The Easy Way

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Probably the reader is familiar with the following scenario: A teacher at a small school has finally finagled permission to use the school's computer lab for English classes. However, since English wasn't considered in the setup of the lab (It's mainly for design or computer majors), there isn't much software available other than word processing software which might at best be used for composition classes. The teacher would like to use the lab for English communication classes, but there isn't much of a budget yet for software, and besides it will take time for a budget request to make it through the system (assuming it ever does).

In this paper we will mainly discuss two authoring programs which would meet the needs of teachers in the above or similar situations: *Libra* and *HyperGASP*. These two relatively inexpensive programs were designed by language educators specifically for language education. The programs were created to take advantage of the power of authoring software while remaining easy for teachers to use; teachers who generally are not programmers and don't have the time to learn programming. In presenting these programs we will review some of the concepts involved in authoring language lessons and how these two packages fit the needs of a variety of situations.

Why Use Computers at All?

Regarding using computers and authoring software, teachers often ask, "Why use computers at all? Why not do it the old fashioned way? Aren't you just computerizing the textbook?" Or they may have seen the many software programs which obviously are not based on sound pedagogical theory and wonder what the fuss is all about. Answering these questions is beyond the scope of this paper, but a brief reply will help set the stage for our discussion of authoring software.

It is true that many of the functions of a computer program like *Libra*, which is geared mainly towards using a laserdisc player with a computer, could be duplicated by a teacher playing relevant parts using a remote control, but this misses the main benefits of using the computer. With a computer the students can work individually at their own pace and receive immediate feedback on their progress, unlike the above whole-class, teacher-fronted activity. For example, the computer program can replay relevant portions of a video if the students miss a question or can provide supplemental help such as a text or an audio segment. Students can review as many times as they need to as the computer never gets bored and never gets annoyed at their progress. By having students use computers, teachers can often get more information about individual students than they can in a large classroom.

The other advantage of authoring software even over prepackaged programs is it allows teachers to create their own materials with their own focus. So, if a teacher has a video he or she would like to use, the programs make it easier to pull individual frames or short segments out of a video and incorporate it into an authoring program and ask questions or ask students to do activities based on what they saw.

Computers are not merely tools that teachers can add to their repertoire which may include video, audio, text, or computers. There are studies that have shown that students learn at least as much in computer classes as in classes without computers. Although it will change as more and more students are exposed to computers in high school or at home, it is still true that there is an additional motivational factor in using computers, especially in Japan where knowledge about computers is seen as a good skill to have in an increasingly competitive job market. Also, having computers available offers one more way of matching students' preferred learning styles.

The Software: Commercial/Shareware

As the number of schools with computer labs has increased, so has the number of software packages specifically for learning language. However there are a number of reasons why a teacher might not want to use "ready made" packages. One reason is that many of these packages are "turn-key" software which means the teacher has limited or no control over the content. Because of this, a teacher might need to buy a number of software packages in order to have software to teach all the skills desired. There is educational shareware available, for which the teacher pays only if the software meets his/her needs but as noncommercial software the quality varies from better than commercial packages to poor. Again, the teacher still may not have control over the content.

Authoring Software

There are a number of authoring packages available for both Mac and IBM platforms ranging from *HyperCard*, a general purpose package, to *MacroMedia Director*, an expensive, high-powered package with myriads of features. All of these authoring packages enable programmers to more quickly and easily create programs which previously took 20 to 30 hours for each minute of interaction with programs like *BASIC*. However, there is still a very steep learning curve even for the lowest-level authoring programs.

Additionally, none of these packages were created with teachers in mind. Although there are add-ons (called "stacks") available for *HyperCard*, for example, there has been no single authoring system available for teachers with the features they need most built in.

To respond to this need a number of inexpensive, easy-to-use packages designed specifically for teachers in mind have become available, including *Libra* and *HyperGASP*. These packages are comparatively inexpensive (from $65 a copy to $500 for a site license for *HyperGASP*, for example) and were designed to include the types of tasks teachers need, such as multiple choice questions, true/false questions, *CLOZE* (for *HyperGASP*) and the ability to use a laserdisc player (both *Libra* and *HyperGASP*). While *HyperCard* is required for the author of programs, only the player is required for the student machines (although if the teacher wants students to be able to design their own educational software using these two packages, the full version of *HyperCard* would be required).

Using an Authoring Program

Using an authoring system, a teacher can create a CALL unit without learning anything about programming computers. All the teacher needs to be able to do is to think about how lessons should be presented to the students and select an authoring system that will be able to make such a lesson.

Libra

Libra is an authoring system that focuses on developing listening comprehension skills. *Libra* consists of preconstructed templates that enable teachers to create sophisticated multimedia lessons easily. By using *Libra*, teachers can create interactive videodisc lessons, as well as lessons that incorporate *QuickTime*™movies, graphics, and digitized sound by simply selecting options in the preconstructed templates. The whole process is very straightforward. The teacher clicks on the icon for the feature to be used, and then types in information in response to the prompts given by *Libra*. The preconstructed templates which the teacher will be working with consist of basic expository displays, question formats (multiple choice questions, checklist questions, binary checklist questions, and icon-sorting questions), and a variety of student help displays (*More Information, Closer Look, Videodisc Scripts*, and *Dictionary*). By mixing and matching these features, teachers can create complete instructional packages tailored to their students' needs.

HyperGASP

HyperGASP works much the same way as *Libra*, and in fact a module to integrate laserdisc players into the lesson is also available. Additionally, *HyperGASP* offers some options built in to the main program, some of which *Libra* provides as an external option, such as the ability to create Cloze exercises, and True/False questions. *HyperGASP* also includes templates writing teachers would be interested in, such as essay response cards (much as the writing program *Success with Writing*) and clustering diagrams to use in brainstorming (the text in the clusters can be set to automatically load into a new page for editing).

Both programs allow the finished program to be output as plain *HyperCard* stacks which can then be modified with *HyperCard*. This way teachers interested in writing their own *HyperCard* programs can learn how a particular effect was done, and teachers more skilled in programming can "tweak" the outputted program to do even more. *HyperGASP* allows this process to be repeated over and over, that is, the *HyperGASP* "front end" help facility can be stripped away leaving only a *HyperCard* stack just as with *Libra*, but *HyperGASP* allows the "front end" to be reinstalled on a stack created with *HyperGASP* or with any *HyperCard* stack, whereas *Libra* does not allow outputted programs to be reinputted once converted into *HyperCard*. All this means is that teachers using *Libra* should take care to only output the program into *HyperCard* when they're finished modifying it, and/or should keep a copy in *Libra* format which they can modify later.

Beyond the different features provided, both programs are similarly easy to use. *Libra* has a listening focus, and is geared best for use with a laserdisc player, but really both programs overall allow teachers to create similar authoring programs. *HyperGASP* offers more visible options from the menu bars, but the icons in *Libra*'s tool bars are much more intuitive than *HyperGASP*'s and therefore much easier to use.

Both of these programs are easy to use, and neither require much knowledge about *HyperCard* beyond some simple concepts. *HyperCard* uses a "card" metaphor, meaning that all the activities are presented on cards similar to the 5" x 8" cards we're all familiar with. On these cards the programmer can place fields which present information in the form of text or graphics or allow the student or user to add text themselves. The programmer can control the order in which the user goes through the cards or the programmer can provide buttons which the students can click on which allows the user to decide the order he or she would like to go through a program (with limits set by the teacher/programmer, of course). It would be helpful but not essential to learn about HyperCard, and there are a number of very good books available.

Application

In the simple program based on *Libra* the authors used in their presentation at JALT95, we presented a very short lesson based on a laserdisc of a story by Beatrice Potter. In the sample lesson, the students were asked to view a short segment and answer questions to show how much of the clip they remembered by clicking on binary questions (i.e., "Did the children climb a wall or did they climb a tree?"), by clicking on a box for each expression they heard in the video, and answering multiple choice questions ("Why is Mother upset?"). For each answer we either provided a replay of the video or text feedback on the correctness of their responses. This sample lesson, short as it was, would have taken several hours of programming using even *HyperCard*, but because *Libra* is geared primarily for the functions desired by teachers, the program itself only took about an hour once we had decided the approach we wanted to take and the direction we wanted the lesson to go.

Neither of the presenters feels that the computer can currently carry the entire work of a lesson. We both see it as one more tool in the teacher's repertoire. In fact, few schools could afford to have a laserdisc player connected to every computer, and in many cases there may be two to three students sharing one computer, or there may even only be one laserdisc player and a couple computers for an entire class. This is not a problem, since in that case the computer would only be one piece of a jigsawed lesson. Perhaps one group might be watching a video while another is reading a magazine and another is using *Libra*.

One final advantage the above programs have over "mainstream" programs is that the creators of these programs are still accessible to users. Both *HyperGASP* and *Libra* have e-mail addresses and Web sites, and *Libra* allows those with fast connections to the Internet to download a full-featured copy for review.

Conclusion

In this paper we have provided a brief introduction to the concepts and problems involved for teachers who want to create lessons using computer labs. We have presented necessarily brief looks at *Libra* and *HyperGASP*, two programs written expressly for teachers who want to write computer-based lessons. Unfortunately, describing the programs on paper doesn't do them justice. Fortunately, they are very inexpensive and we encourage teachers to contact the companies for themselves.

Resources/References

Libra

Single use $50 (one set of manuals)
Five authoring stations, $100 (one set of manuals)
Ten authoring stations, $150 (three sets of

manuals)
Fifteen authoring stations, $200 (three sets of manuals)
Twenty authoring stations, $250 (four sets of manuals)
Additional sets of manuals $25

Eighty-Twenty Software
Division of Media Services
Southwest Texas State University
601 University Drive
San Marcos, Texas 78666-4616
Phone: 512-245-2319/Fax: 512-245-3168
Internet: MF03@academia.swt.edu
WWW: http://www.libra.swt.edu/

HyperGASP
One copy $65
12 copies, $200,
30 copies, $300,
Site licence, $500
District licence, $1,000

Caliban Mindwear
6590 Camino Carreta
Carpinteria, CA 93013
805-684-7765/ 805-684-3025
e-mail: CalibanMW@aol.com

Multimedia for EFL Learners: Implications for Teaching and Learning

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Multimedia offers students technical help in their language-learning, meaning-making, and self-expression. Multimedia is, in effect, an array of tools for teachers and students to use in designing their collective future. This article will examine some of the possibilities as well as the limits of multimedia in the language classroom. It will also consider the ways that multimedia—as part of the digital revolution—alters the nature of literacy and affects all aspects of teaching and learning. Because many terms associated with multimedia are not generally understood, some definitions may help clarify the discussion.

- *Multimedia:* This ubiquitous buzzword is frequently overstated and often misunderstood. It is also redundant—multi and media are both plural—but its currency is so wide that we are probably stuck with it. Multimedia, as the word suggests, draws upon more than one media source. It represents the computer-assisted linking of text with non-print elements—sound, graphics, animation, and video—as seen in many CD-ROM discs and, increasingly, in the World Wide Web on the Internet. Multimedia is more than a combination of computers and video; it is a "high-bandwidth" source in the sense that a great deal of information, in many modes, is available at once (Moore, Myers, & Burton, 1994, p. 30). Perhaps even more significantly, as Debloois (1982, p. 33) contends, multimedia is "an entirely new media" with characteristics greater than the sum of its parts.

Interactivity is the essence of multimedia. Learners control the sequence and even the content of their learning. As Gleason (1991) observes, multimedia not only allows learners to become involved but actually demands their involvement. Multimedia engages learners by its intrinsic ability to provide them with an environment that supports the full range of learning styles, the "multiple intelligences" proposed by Gardner and Hatch (1989)--linguistic, visual, logical/mathematical, auditory, musical, kinesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal. In effect, as Moore, Myers, and Burton observe, multimedia allows users to "see, hear, and do," enabling them to draw upon their greatest strengths:

> Through this mix of presentation techniques, interactive multimedia can appeal to learners who prefer to receive information by reading, those who learn best through hearing, and those who prefer hands-on environments. (Moore, Myers, & Burton, 1994, p. 30)

• *Hypertext*: One of the sources of multimedia is the concept of hypertext, theorized in a 1945 essay by Vannevar Bush, professor of engineering at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology and director of the Office of Scientific Research and Development under Franklin D. Roosevelt. Foreseeing the need to manage the exponential growth of knowledge in this century, Bush proposed what he called the "memex," a machine that was never built but was nonetheless highly influential on subsequent thinking about hypertext. Essentially, the "memex" was a device that would imitate the human mind's ability to branch, link, and retrieve information (Bush, 1945, pp. 101-108). It was a "mechanical writing and reading machine that would allow users to map trails within and between documents; these trails could be for personal use or shared with other readers" (Johnson-Eilola, 1994, p. 200).

In the 1960s, such hypertext pioneers as Douglas Englebart and Theodor (Ted) Nelson pursued Bush's ideas of browsing and linking, and, as a consequence, brought multimedia forward. Englebart developed the mouse, which has since become indispensable in personal computing, and the idea of a "view filter" that allowed a user to scan a database quickly for information (Sharp, 1994, Englebart & Hooper, 1988). Ted Nelson coined the term "hypertext" in 1965 to describe non-linear or non-sequential writing (Nelson, 1987). He subsequently created the software *Xanadu*, which permitted a user to connect text and other forms of information electronically (Nelson, 1987).

In hypertext, all forms of data are interconnected so as to enable users to browse through topics of interest in no predetermined order and make their own links between information. As December and Randall (1994) observe, hypertext denotes "text linked across a potentially unlimited number of information sources." A link takes a user to another document, which, in turn, contains links to other documents, (and so forth). With the proper software, these documents can be accessed via the Internet on any hypertext-capable computer located anywhere in the world (December & Randall, 1994, p. 1023). Thus the early work of Englebart and Nelson in the 1960s has led to the current state in which hypertext provides the organizing principle of electronic books, computerized glossaries, and, most recently, the World Wide Web--a hypertext-based resource recovery tool that is gaining dominance on the Internet.

• *Hypermedia*: Ted Nelson also coined this term. While closely related to hypertext, hypermedia emphasizes nontextual media (Nelson, 1987). In hypermedia, computers serve as tools for communicating ideas by allowing users--in the jargon of the field--to input, manipulate, and output graphics, video, sound, and text. A computer is the central processor of information that might come from a video camera, a laser disc player, a VCR, a CD-ROM player, a video and/or audio digitizer, a scanner, even a musical keyboard (Sharp, 1994). Some of the professional hypermedia software tools for manipulating such data include *Macromedia Director* and *Adobe Premiere*. For general educational purposes, there can be found, among others, Claris Corporation's *HyperCard* and Roger Wagner Publishing Company's *HyperStudio*.

Multimedia in EFL Classes

Many teachers are experimenting with multimedia, trying to harness its intrinsic ability to engage students and make them active participants in their learning. The current writer has worked with multimedia in English language and literature classes for almost eight years--with native speakers and ESL students in California from 1988 to 1994, and more recently with EFL students in Japan for the past two years. (I recount my California experiences in Dryden, 1994, pp. 282-304.) Like many others, I have suffered the consequences of exploring relatively new terrain, or, if you will, working on the "bleeding edge" of technology.

The complications of teaching with technology are illustrated by an ambitious multimedia project I gave my students during my first year in Japan. Preceding the project, students had made simple *HyperStudio* stacks of a few cards each--merging text, graphics, and sound (including their own voices) and linking the cards with buttons, in hypertext fashion. For the project itself, students in groups of four created elaborate—perhaps too elaborate—multimedia introductions to Nagoya. Students found pictures of local sites in postcards and tourist brochures and scanned them into their stacks; then they captured *QuickTime* movies of their subjects from a Chamber of Commerce video. They provided text by writing descriptions (using information taken from brochures) and their own letters welcoming potential visitors to their sites. They unified their projects with a menu stack that permitted navigation between the content stacks. I showed exemplary models of these projects at JALT in November of 1995.

Because of the logistics involved in teaching so many multimedia skills to classes of over fifty the project took most of a semester. Colleagues questioned the value of the assignment in relation to the time invested by asking, "Where's the language learning?" Of course, students had processed the English-language brochures and the video, and they had written two compositions in English for the text of their projects. Nonetheless, once I dropped my psychic defenses, I had to agree that the emphasis fell on multimedia, and that language learning was secondary. An assignment that would have been appropriate for native speakers was disproportionate for EFL learners.

Gradually, I have found better ways for multimedia to serve language learning. One way, adapted from the work of Linda Wickert, a multimedia pioneer in California, is to give students a teacher-devised template stack and let them assemble portfolios of documents they produced earlier in the year (Wickert, 1995). The template stack has a menu card that leads to other cards for various kinds of work—student goals, vocabulary words, major writing assignments, etc. The stack even has a place for the student's picture, taken with a QuickTake camera. (Student do not need to spend weeks of class time creating their own stacks of this kind when the teacher can make one in a few hours and let all the students use it.)

Among other uses of multimedia that emphasize language learning, students can browse *HyperStudio*'s CD-ROM disc of images and sounds, download pictures that interest them and then write about them—selecting among thirty possible topics that range from autobiography, to an advertisement of a product, to reflection on the state of the world. In another approach, students choose from a self-access library of CD-ROM discs, working in an English-language environment as they learn about ecology and geography, listen to music videos, or play mystery and adventure games. Finally, research assignments on the World Wide Web, in which students navigate hypertextually (and in English) across the globe, may represent the ultimate in language learning through educational multimedia.

Beyond the necessary balance between multimedia and language learning, other general principles exist for the appropriate uses of computer technology in the classroom. For one, technology should serve and enrich the curriculum—not drive it. We should consider pedagogical goals first, and only then ask how computers and multimedia can support them. Sometimes, pencil and paper are the appropriate technology for certain assignments. The computer is an immensely powerful tool, but it is not the only tool and, at certain stages or in certain kinds of student work, it is not always the most suitable tool. Another consideration is the difference between glitz and substance. A multimedia presentation can dazzle the eye and the ear with all kinds of special effects and make one forget that there is no real content. Ted Nelson (1993, p. 16) offers this pronouncement: "Instead of promoting mere mindless pointing and clicking, interactive media should be leading the way toward greater conceptual depth." If multimedia does not support language learning or higher-level thinking, it is not appropriate.

A New Kind of Literacy

The nature of communication is fundamentally changing in our time as multimedia pervades the general culture. With the rapid growth of the CD-ROM disc industry and the increasing presence of the Internet in business and in people's daily lives, students need to learn to use computers as tools for communicating ideas hypertextually. Schools and universities, conservative by nature and the last institutions to technologize, must respond to these changes if they are to survive in any recognizable form. Richard Lanham of UCLA warns that if universities do not do a better job of preparing students for the world they will live in, students, before too long, may "vote with their feet" and migrate to other institutions that may

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evolve to serve the globalization of business and industry (Lanham, 1993).

Multimedia and hypertext question and overturn many commonly-accepted views in the academic world, but perhaps none so dear as the notion of the "fixed" text with clearly-defined Aristotelian categories of beginning, middle, and end. Hypertext subverts this model, suggesting that nothing is ever finished, that each "end" is simply another "beginning," another jumping-off point for further exploration. The model of human knowledge proposed by hypertext is based not on individual books but on entire libraries—ones whose collections are constantly growing and interconnecting at an exponential rate (Lunenfeld, 1995).

When I first showed students the World Wide Web last fall, I was gratified that some recognized the essential nature of this new literacy. With the click of hypertext-highlighted words, we navigated from the Netscape Directory, to the Yahoo! Directory, to the sub-category menu for Society and Culture, to Human Rights, and from there to pictures and text about prisoners of conscience. Then we continued through other menus to sites on three different continents. Someone remarked, "It's like *HyperStudio*," and others nodded. It was simple branching and linking: the students were clear on the concept. They had understood the "grammar" of multimedia—the non-linear organization of ideas and information that is central to the current transformation of literacy.

The challenge of this new literacy facing all contemporary teachers is defined—perhaps surprisingly—by a classicist, Jay David Bolter:

> The printed book, therefore, seems destined to move to the margin of our literate culture. The issue is not whether print technology will completely disappear; books may long continue to be printed for certain kinds of texts and for luxury consumption. But the idea and the ideal of the book will change: print will no longer define the organization and presentation of knowledge, as it has for the past five centuries. This shift from print to the computer does not mean the end of literacy. What will be lost is not literacy itself, but the literacy of print, for electronic technology offers us a new kind of book and new ways to write and read.(p. 2)

Depending on one's disposition, these changes—which are historic and unstoppable—represent either a menace to civilization as we know it, or an unprecedented opportunity to accommodate all kinds of learners and all styles of learning in an academic world transformed and democratized by the digital revolution. While technophobes like Neil Postman (1992) issue jeremiads against the supposed decline of traditional literacy, other commentators—represented by Ted Nelson—take an ameliorative view: "By enabling people to visualize complexities that were previously beyond their grasp, interactive media can push the boundaries of understanding" (Nelson, 1993, p. 16).

A major complication of the current changes in literacy, particularly for language teachers and linguists, arises from the increasingly visual nature of communication. Richard Lanham (like Bolter, a classicist) detects a growing shift in the "alphabetic/ image ratio" in broadcast television, daily communication, and training procedures in business, government, and the military. While the "cultural prejudices of alphabetic literacy" make many in the academic world interpret these changes as a threat, others see them as a natural evolution of human communication and cognition that the academic world had better attend to (Lanham, 1993).

Similarly, Friedhoff and Benzon (1989) argue that we are coming to depend on visual intelligence as "a vital tool for conceptual thought in ways that were simply impossible before the digitalization of information" (Lanham, 1993, p. 125). Detailing the growing prevalence of visual thought and expression, Lanham cites Friedhoff and Benzon's observation of "the importance of computer-graphic illustration for medical and scientific research, for planning large-scale works of art, and for visualizing the behavior of what we have come to call chaotic systems of all sorts, artistic or scientific." Lanham (1993, p. 125) concludes, "We have to do here not with ornamentation of a preexistent rational argument but with an expanded sense of human reason itself." Multimedia, as part of the digital revolution, serves these transformations in communication, which, in turn, reflect the changing cognitive and epistemological models of the times.

Surely there will be ways for language teaching to adapt to and even take advantage of these shifts in human communication—in the short term with multimedia's rich audio and video support for language activities available on CD-ROM discs and the World Wide Web; in the long term with full-dress "virtual reality" computer simulations like those now used by the military to prepare people for situations they will face outside the classroom—which, when you think of it, is what language instruction is really for.

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The Effects of Learning Strategies in a CALL Laboratory

– A Report from Tokyo Kogei University –

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CALL and Learning Strategies: Introduction

The Computer Assisted Language Learning Laboratory (CALLL), a multimedia laboratory, has been highlighted recently. This paper focuses on a CALLL system now in operation at Tokyo Kogei University (TKU) in Atsugi, Kanagawa. The purpose of this study is to find out how learning strategies in CALLL affects learning.

CALLL system at Tokyo Kogei University

The CALLL project team at TKU always keeps in mind the following two perspectives during their on-going planning: 1) Language is a behavior; and 2) indirect learning strategies, including cooperative language learning, should be emphasized. Ahmad, Corbett, Rogers, and Sussex (1985) describe the potential of CALL under chaotic circumstances on the effects of approaches to the different cognitive styles of the learners. Computers in EFL, ideally, should serve to promote interaction that is beneficial for integrating language, cognition and social development. Recent discourse-based second language acquisition theory has emphasized the process of communicative interaction in language learning.

Let us introduce the overall system of CALLL at TKU. The teacher's control console has an conventional LL control unit, teacher's computer and monitor, and visual display equipment. Each student has a cassette tape recorder, a computer, a keyboard and a headset. Each computer is allocated to each student for individual or group work.

Aspects of cooperative learning should be reflected in the choice of hardware (including the physical setting) and software (including networking). From the interactional point of view, group work is considered to hold more opportunities for language use and development than individual work. Our CALLL is supported by the physical arrangement of students' desks as well as the networked system. During the year before introducing CALLL at TKU, we observed that students were more likely to tutor one another in groups than in individual work when doing listening tasks in a conventional language laboratory. This cooperation resulted in their compensating each other's shortcomings. They freely volunteered their ideas and guesses while working together.

Student booths are arranged on V-shaped desks. Four students sit at one V-shaped desk. The facilities offer flexibility in arranging a variety of interaction styles: individual work, pair work, group work, as well as lockstep exercises. This makes it possible for the teacher to easily vary group size and the structure of interactions. If two V-shaped desks are brought together they make one equal-sided square setting for 8 students. Three V-shaped desks can be arranged in a triangular pattern accommodating 12 students. Having students sit "face-to-face" creates many additional possibilities.

As for the computer work, the core group consists of 4 students. When the teacher switches to the networking mode, 4 students share one monitor although they sit at their own computers. They can enter text from their own keyboards, solve problems together, or write paragraphs with their group mates. That may give more opportunity to "acquire" a new language in addition to the "learning" of the language. Students confer with each other over the headsets as necessary.

CALLL program

The CALLL accommodates the following courses: English 1B (Basic Grammar and Basic Writing), Practical English B (an audio and video course focusing on conversation) and Academic Writing.

We would like to note the change of the teacher's role. The teacher becomes a facilitator rather than a lecturer or instructor. The teacher examines their evaluations, monitors their computer displays and listens to what they are listening to. One of the most important tasks of the teacher is to give feedback to each student. The teacher can show a model student's advanced progress on the built-in monitors. Students see how other students are doing. This drives them to practice more. Advanced students go further and further at their own pace. The teacher always joins in the group discussion and changes the group structures according to the difficulty of the task.

Effects of CALL Lab on the Learner Use of Learning Strategies

The idea of teaching learning strategies[1] might fit the need of corresponding with the changing demands of our society. Teaching learning strategies might possibly give more opportunity for taking in information in many styles by means of the use of their various aspects of intelligence (Shigemitsu & Tanabe, 1994).

Language learning strategies were combined with the CALLL at TKU to activate all aspects of intelligence[2] by integrating pieces of mixed media. Teaching language learning strategies provides students with the opportunity of forming the habits of good language learners, and the CALLL is supposed to support this extensively.

By examining the students' responses to the CALLL classes, the issues below were the points of discussion in the students' initial introduction to the CALLL (Shigemitsu & Tanabe, 1995). In the study, students' ideas about learning with CALLL were solicited through 14 questionnaire items. The questionnaire was given to the subjects, 185 university students, who were taking CALL classes at the time of the research. A questionnaire was given to the students after they had used the CALLL four times.[3]

The following are the issues dealt with:

1) The CALLL was very much welcomed by students.
2) Variation in teaching was certainly found to be important in satisfying students' needs. The use of the computer was highly rated and the newness of the methodology was also seen as a plus.
3) Some criticisms were made concerning motivational factors: "It's not different from regular classes" (12.5% of the negative answers); "I want more interesting classes" (33.3%); "The use of computers is insufficient" (33.3%); and "Grammar may be learned but conversation will not" (30.0%). These comments indicate that teachers should have sufficient knowledge about the merits of the CALLL and use its functions fully in order to realize ideal learning situations.
4) Comments such as "I tend to play with computers," or "Only computer skills will be learned," is a misinterpretation of the optimal linguistic circumstances. Since many of these students were accustomed to the traditional way, they have cultural and personal biases about how learning circumstances should be. It can be said that teachers must overtly explain the expected effects of the method and teaching philosophy.
5) Critical but implicit views about teaching with the CALLL were found. For example, those comments such as "I don't know" which comprised 42.5% of the comments made by students choosing medium, and 80% of those choosing negative also suggest that teachers need to give students justifications for the methodology and clear explanations of the teaching philosophy.
6) General learning preferences seem to transfer to the CALLL too. Just as in Nunan's study (1988), our results showed a preference for conversation and pronunciation but lower preference for listening.

Questionnaire—Results and Discussion

Tanabe (1994) compared the effects of teaching language learning strategies in classes taught explicitly and implicitly, and he found that there were no significant differences among the groups. However, the differences could be explained in relation to students' prior learning experiences (transfer of learning styles) and their motivation. Motivated students improved in their use of learning strategies. A different questionnaire was given to students to investigate their learning strategies in the CALLL.

Method

According to a proposal by Oxford (1990), 76 questionnaire items (See Appendix) were made under the 14 headings. The results were compared with the results of Tanabe (1994) of 29 business majors (23 male, 6 female), 32 economics majors (27 male, 5 female) and 65 English majors (0 male, 65 female) at two different universities in Japan.

Subjects

Sixty male students and four female students who were taking English IB in TKU. They had studied seven times in the CALL Lab over six months.

Results and Discussion

Large differences (Average or Kogei ≥ 10) were found only in "H" (metacognitive strategies) and "J" (affective strategies). The CALLL group ("Kogei") showed 10.9% less than the users of the learning strategies categorized under "H." This result seems to be related to the area of learning that the CALLL can cover. For example, in the CALL class various tasks are presented in a 90 minutes, and various approaches are possible, so the students might have difficulty in understanding the purpose of the tasks as a whole. This seems to coincide with the prior study of the introduction of the CALLL.

Under "J" (affective strategies), the CALLL group showed a 12.3% greater number of users of these strategies. The effects on the affective domain again seems to coincide with the prior study. Many learners answered that use of computers and the newness of using the CALLL facilities made their English class interesting. The fun they experience during the CALL lab might implicitly teach them to enjoy language learning.

In some other respects, the CALLL group showed a higher ratio of users, which were: D (1.7%), F (1.5%), L (1.3%), and N (1.7%). They are under the categories of cognitive, compensation, affective and social strategies, respectively. On the other hand, the CALLL group showed a smaller ratio of users in categories: A (5%), B (3.6%), C (0.8%), E (3.1%), G (2.4%), I (1.7%), K (7.2%), and M (4%). These are categorized under memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, and social strategies, respectively. There were no major differences between the

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average group (Tanabe, 1994) and CALLL group except for the two above.

Conclusion

The CALLL seemed to give a positive effect by providing an opportunity to learn effective learning strategies. However, it also seemed to give a negative effect in teaching the use of metacognitive strategies. Further discussion and improvement of teaching methods and approaches are required.

Notes

1 In defining learning strategies, major studies have been done by Richards (1990), O'Malley & Shamot (1990), Oxford (1990) and Ellis (1985). Their studies provide the images of learning strategies such as being special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of information (O'Malley, 1990). Good language learners seem to be successful as they have a better understanding and control over their own learning than less successful learners (Richards, 1990). Oxford (1990), by giving examples from Rigney (1978) and Danserau (1985), concludes that it is useful to expand this definition by saying that learning strategies are "specific action taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations." Ellis (1985) also explained the mechanism as it has to do with the way the learners control the amount of input received and the way they handle this input.

2. Gardner (1983) said that in the process of achieving a goal of a task, students can get audio or musical, 3-dimensional, paralinguistic, affective, graphic, and linguistic information, separately or in combination.

3. The class of English IB (basic grammar and writing) meets once every third class.

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Appendix

According to the proposal by Oxford (1990), 76 questionnaire items were made under 14 headings. A questionnaire with 76 questions asking the use of each learning strategy was answered either by "Yes" or "No."

A. Words, idiomatic expressions, and structure learning (memory strategies): 1. categorizing words, 2. relating unknown to prior knowledge, 3. putting words in order, 4. putting words into a story, 5. having an image of vocabularies, 6. using a map, 7. using key words, 8. using phonics, 9. retrieving words, 10. using physical rhythm, sensual image, 11. making cards and lists, and 12. reordering cards and lists.

B. Learning, practicing (cognitive strategies):13. read and write repeatedly, 14. use phonics, 15. using rules and formula, 16. connecting known phrases to the unknown, and 17. learning naturally.

C. Facilitating understanding (compensation strategies): 18. using skimming and scanning, 19. compensating ability by referring to a script or other information, 20. applying general rules to the unknown, 21. decomposing unknown expressions to smaller units, 22. applying grammatical rules of Japanese, 23. translating, and 24. using Japanese words, the ways of thinking, etc.

D. Receiving and sending messages (cognitive strategies): 25. taking notes while listening, 26. drawing charts and pictures while listening, 27. summarizing, and 28. emphasizing with markers, underlining.

E. Inferring in listening and reading (compensation strategies): 29. resorting to prior knowledge of vocabularies and grammar, 30. inferring meanings from contexts, 31. guessing from situation, 32. guessing from the tone of voice, 33. guessing from gestures, 34. guessing from facial expression, 35. guessing from real world knowledge, 36. guessing from tables and figures, and 37. guessing from the topic or the discourse knowledge.

F. Speaking and writing (compensation strategies): 38. using Japanese words for unknown words, 39. asking for help from other people, 40. using body language, 41. avoiding topics, 42. Choosing favorite topics, 43. modifying messages, 44. connecting words, and 45. circumlocution.

G. Concentration on the specific skills (metacognitive strategies): 46. knowing the purpose of the learning, 47. learning words for specific purposes, 48. learning specific skills, and 49. learning listening before speaking.

H. Planning learning (metacognitive strategies): 50. getting information about effective learning strategies, 51. making a learning schedule, 52. optimizing physical environment for learning, 53. setting a goal for each learning task, 54. setting a goal for the achievement of ability, 55. trying to understand the meaning of the task, 56. learning for specific purposes, and 57. trying to maximize learning opportunity.

I. Self-evaluation (metacognitive strategies): 58. finding errors and eliminating them, and 59. having self-evaluating method.

J. Mental control (affective strategies): 60. trying to relax while learning, 61. having a relaxing strategy, 62. using music for relaxation, and 63. trying to enjoy learning.

K. Motivating (affective strategies): 64. self-evaluating achievement, 65. putting him/herself into the situation where English is indispensable, and 66. self-praising, give awards to him/herself.

L. Physical and mental control (affective strategies): 67. self-monitoring psychological state, 68. checking feelings, attitude, and motivation, 69. recording feelings after learning, and 70. discussing feelings with someone else.

M. Communication (social strategies): 71. asking for clarification or verification, 72. asking for correction, 73. cooperating with peers, and 74. cooperating with proficient users of the target language outside of class.

N. Understanding cultural differences (Social strategies): 75. developing cultural understanding, and 76. becoming aware of the thoughts and feelings of others.

An Adjunct Model in the Computer Classroom

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Miyazaki International College is a new four-year liberal arts college. The entire curriculum, except for Japanese language courses, is in English. One of the unique features of the college is the use of English adjuncts in the first two years. In other words, every content class has an accompanying English language class. Teaching pairs work out between themselves how to structure each class; some pairs adopt an integrated approach in which the adjunct literally becomes the bridge to the content, while others maintain a strong delineation between the two parts of the class which may result in the adjunct working on language issues indirectly related to the content.

In Applied Information Science (AIS), the course professor, Jim Kieley, and I decided to employ the former approach. Content would be supported by English instruction through an integrated model. After much debate and discussion, we decided the use of projects would best facilitate an integrated adjunct model since we believed a well-designed project could effectively combine language and computer skills.

There are as many definitions of project-based teaching as there are projects. We took the idea of a project to mean that students would work independently. After we gave them a basic outline of the project, the students selected what aspect they wanted to work on, located and organized materials and presented the end product within a defined time frame. Responsibility for each project's success clearly rested in the hands of the students as they applied their learning to real problems. Thus, the project allowed students to express their interests and to demonstrate what they were capable of doing in an independent environment. Moreover, we hoped that the project would motivate and involve the students in the class.

We divided the content of the course into roughly three sections: the first section was devoted to computer and language basics; the second section introduced the idea of a project through some structured mini-projects; and the final section of the class focused on the project and provided any additional training the students needed in order to complete the project.

Since environmental issues are an underlying theme at Miyazaki International College (MIC), we felt a paperlite class would demonstrate to the students how they could put environmental responsibility into practice. We created our course book on the World Wide Web (WWW). The class homepage included the syllabus, readings, assignments, quizzes, help documents and, of course, links to Internet resources.

The First Section

We assumed that the students would come into an introductory class with a minimum knowledge of computers, basic applications, computer networks and the Internet. While this assumption quickly proved to be correct, we were surprised to discover that students also lacked even basic typing/keyboarding skills.

To remedy the lack of typing skills, we showed the students the *Mavis Beacon* typing program and encouraged them to come in and practice during their free time. We instituted a weekly typing competition to ensure students would practice and improve. The students were put into four-student groups with approximately the same average typing speed. The typing results of each group were posted on the AIS homepage and compared weekly. By the end of the semester the majority of students had reached the stated goal of 15 words per minute.

During this time, students were also introduced to *Microsoft Word*, a word processing application, and *Pegasus Mail*, an e-mail application. The instructor's computer at the front of the class was connected to an overhead projector with an LCD panel. Images were projected onto a large screen in the front of the room and two 21-inch ceiling-mounted monitors in the middle of the room. All applications were introduced using a "see and do" model — the students watched and followed on their own computers. To help the flow of the class I usually monitored the students, indicating to Jim when all the students were on track and helping out those who got lost. I also noted new vocabulary and structures that were used frequently in those sessions.

The focus of the language instruction during this period was intensive work on vocabulary development while providing some strategies for dealing with all the new vocabulary. We also worked intensively on getting the students to understand and use some of the basic Macintosh operating system language that students needed, no matter which application they were working on in a Macintosh environment, e.g., go to X, open X, select X, delete X, in addition to the language they needed to function effectively in the MIC network environment.

The Second Section

We introduced the Internet, specifically the World Wide Web, during this phase of the class. We focused on using the Web as a research tool. At first, students were given simple scavenger hunt type activities in which they had to use different search tools to find specific information on topics of the instructors' choosing. Later, students had more freedom to choose the topics they would research; however, students were asked to focus their Internet searches to topics that were of interest to them or of possible use in their classes at MIC. Language instruction highlighted learning how to reference Internet resources, summarizing the information and judging the usefulness of the resources.

Interspersed with the skills training during this time were several short lectures on various aspects of applied information science, including the computer as a system, the history of information science and computer networks. In addition, a guest speaker demonstrated how sound could be manipulated using the MIDI system.

The Final Section

As we were planning a project-based class, Jim and I agreed that there needed to be a unifying project theme which the individual student projects would support. We also wanted the final product to be useful. With this in mind, we settled on the theme of an electronic guidebook to Miyazaki called *Miyazaki Viewpoints*.

Our expectations were that the students would decide on which aspect of the Miyazaki area they wanted to research, find and organize the information, and then put it into a format that could be viewed on the WWW. They were also expected to give an oral presentation on their finished product.

In order for the students to accomplish this, we had to spend some time teaching them how to format information, i.e., text, graphics, sound or video, for the Web. Students used the following applications: *HTML Pro* for creating HTML documents, *Sound Edit Pro* for creating sound files, *Adobe Photoshop* for creating graphics and working with scanned images, *Movie Player* for capturing video and *Graphic Converter* and *GIF Converter* for converting graphics to a gif format.

Based on the experience I have had using projects in other classes, I felt it was important in this project for the students to have clearly defined tasks and due dates with progress checks built in. While some may argue that this kind of structure lessens the value of project-based work, I would reply that you have to weigh student autonomy against student capabilities. I wanted to ensure student success in the project and felt without these guides students would flounder, especially since this was the first time for many of them to do project-based work.

Inasmuch as information on the Web has the potential of being viewed by millions of people, it was important to us as instructors that any text be of a high quality. We stressed the importance of well-organized, well-structured writing to the students. I tried to edit every piece of writing before it was put on-line. I attempted to have the students correct their own work by providing feedback on it, but often we would sit down at a computer and make the corrections together. While there are still errors present in the work, I felt it was important that blatant errors and misspellings be corrected before others viewed the project.

Overall, we were pleased and surprised at the quality of the final results of the project. Almost every student gave the project his/her best effort — and it showed. *Miyazaki Viewpoints* gives an honest and informative overview of the Miyazaki area. I hope others will enjoy looking at it as much as we enjoyed putting it together. The address is:

http://www.miyazaki-mic.ac.jp/classes/ais/ais_95/proj95.html

Looking back over the semester, I have to ask myself if I would do project work again. I have to answer yes. A project-based class did allow all the positive things we thought would happen to happen. The projects allowed the better students to show off their talents; it gave all the students a way to apply their knowledge; it forced students to use problem-solving and decision making skills; and it motivated and involved the students in the class.

However, projects are not without their pitfalls. Anyone wishing to use projects in their courses must be aware of them. Projects must be well-designed, even a very small-scale project. It is crucial for a project developer to think out to its conclusion a model of that project. A project that is not well-designed creates confusion and frustration for everyone. Projects take a great deal of time, both in preparation and actualization. We had to drastically reduce the amount of technology we wanted to introduce to the students when we decided to use projects. Students must have adequate preparatory training before starting on a project. Much of our time was spent showing students how to format the information they gathered to the Web. Students need structure in order to successfully complete a project. The amount of structure will, of course, depend on the language capabilities and the previous exposure to projects that your students have had. We suggest, at a minimum, making everyone aware of the project deadlines and building in progress checks. Projects are difficult to grade, especially if you do not have progress checks and only grade an end product. And finally, not all students work well in an independent environment.

My project-based class of the future might have the following recommendations incorporated into it.

Recommendations

1. Set the project theme.
2. Make sure the project is something the students can easily do on their own. Are there ample resources available?
3. Allow students to work in pairs if they want.
4. Provide time management training.
5. Approve the student aspect of the project before the student begins gathering information.
6. Break the project up into stages and provide clear goals for each stage.
7. Provide a model of each stage.
8. Provide any training the students will need to do at each stage. For example, if you expect the students to conduct

interviews, you must make sure students know how to introduce themselves and their project, break the ice and initiate the interview, develop good interview questions, thank the interviewee, write up the interview, etc.

9. Develop progress checks and forms for reporting progress for each stage.
10. Develop grading criteria and grade each stage of the project.
11. Develop clear guidelines for any writing to be done and require drafts.
12. Allow sufficient time for the students to complete the project.

Projects are a valuable teaching tool if used correctly and these recommendations can mean the difference between a successful project and one that doesn't work.

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Using Computer Networks to Facilitate Communication: Network Projects at Chubu

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Introduction

Extensive research suggests that in order to enhance language acquisition, we need to provide students with opportunities to use the target language in a real communicative manner (Krashen & Terrell, 1983; Brown, 1995). E-mail provides a multitude of opportunities for authentic and meaningful communication (Warschauer, 1995). Since e-mail is a fairly new medium, we have conducted a series of e-mail penpal (keypal) projects with Japanese university students to determine how and if e-mail serves to motivate students and possibly to improve their English proficiency more efficiently than other conventional methods of teaching. Students were not graded on their work but some did receive extra credit points for their participation.

Four major projects have been conducted since April 1994. Some of them were a semester long, and others were on-going open-ended projects for motivated voluntary students. Among them were an e-mail exchange project between students at Chubu University and Chubu students studying at Ohio University, U.S.A. (Project 1); a "closed" in-house mailing list discussion group involving more than 10 language teachers and students on campus (Project 2); and an intensive writing project using an Internet newsgroup system (Project 3). Our data gathering techniques were both quantitative and qualitative and included teacher and student questionnaires and analysis of e-mail correspondence. These three projects are discussed and evaluated below.

Descriptions of the Three Projects

Project No. 1: E-mail Exchange with Japanese Students Studying in the U.S.

Two groups of students from Chubu

University, Japan, were involved in keypal exchanges with each other. Group 1 consisted of 35 first year International Studies students and Group 2 consisted of 15 International Studies students and 15 Engineering students who were attending Ohio University for two quarters on a study abroad program. Neither group had previously known each other or had any familiarity with computers. In the beginning of the first semester, the students both in the U.S. and in Japan were given a few orientation sessions on how to use an e-mail system. For most of the students it was their first time to even touch a keyboard. Each student was matched with two students from the other group on a purely random basis. They were asked to exchange messages weekly on any topic of their interest.

At the very beginning stage, only a few networked Macintosh computers were available for the students at Chubu University. Therefore, the students were asked to write messages outside of class when they could find time and available computers, and to mail them through a local network to their teacher who had access to the networked computer.

The information topics included popular music, sports, social life, academic courses, and personal matters. However, it seemed a number of students in Japan were interested in knowing about their keypals' life in the U.S. and those in the U.S. about what was happening in their home university and home country. As the project developed, the students became so interested that some started to exchange two or three e-mail letters a week. A few students wrote messages almost everyday.

On the Japan side, the exchanges took place on an Internet mailing list and hence were not private. Students sent and received e-mail helped by a software program called *Eudora*. The program automatically delivered the messages to all the students involved in this project. The software also automatically downloaded the messages into a mailbox for each student and had a variety of features like an automatic quote and reply command. Although each message sent from the U.S. carried the names to whom the message was written, everyone was allowed to read and respond to the message he or she opened. This was so designed so that those who were motivated could write to more than two people and the teacher could monitor the exchanged messages. On the U.S. side, the students were assigned to go to a computer center at least once a week to read messages and respond directly to their keypals.

The project lasted for 15 weeks. When the exchange students came back from the U.S., the two groups met each other at a get-together party at Chubu University. The students enjoyed this chance to talk to friends that they had previously only known through the computer screen.

Project No. 2: A "closed" Mailing List Discussion Group

This project involved 79 students of English at Chubu University. The majority of the students were from two International Studies Department English classes; 35 from a 1st year class and 20 from a 2nd year class. The other students were individual volunteers drawn from 2nd year International Studies Department English classes and from a group who had spent the previous semester studying at Ohio University. The latter group came from a variety of majors and academic years. In addition to the students, eight instructors participated in the project. The length of the project was one semester. All of the participants were students at Chubu University in Kasugai, Japan. Approximately half of the students had previous experience using e-mail in an earlier project. This format is appropriate for elementary and intermediate level users of the target language. The project took on the form of a closed list rather than a penpal exchange. Group 1 and ten students from Group 2 who had returned from Ohio continued to participate. They were joined by a class of 20 second year International Studies students and 14 volunteers who were also second year International Studies Students. Eight English instructors participated as well. Participation was required for the first two groups mentioned above. However, the quality and quantity of their contributions to the list didn't affect the students' grades. As mentioned above, participation by the other students was voluntary.

The students' first assignment was to post a self-introduction to the list. After reading the initial postings, the students began to respond to one another. These early postings were not very long and contained little detail, so the participating instructors began to respond to the students and prompt them to expand their ideas and further explore certain topics. This lead to an interesting development. The students began to direct explanations of their earlier postings and questions to individual instructors.

In some ways this development was quite useful. The students' curiosity about the instructors opinions and experiences motivated them to pursue topics in greater detail. The topics included life in foreign countries, how to study/improve English, entertainment. part-time jobs, love, and non-Japanese perceptions of Japan. The instructors then turned the questions back on the students. This pushed the students to write longer and more meaningful messages.

Project No. 3: Intensive Writing Project Using NewsGroup

The class was divided according to their experiences overseas. The students who had been abroad (3 to 4 students per group) were assigned to write about their cross-cultural experiences, their surprises or any interesting observations about life overseas. The students without overseas experience were assigned to write about things or events particular to Japanese culture. The groups then decided what to write. This was the first time for all the students to use computers in writing. The class was team-taught by a native speaker of English from the United States and a Japanese.

We set up a local net news group for for out-of-class writing. We used an Internet News browser software application called *News Agent*, a freeware program which runs on Macintosh computers. The software helped the students sort the message-comment chain and quote and add comments to messages easily. We decided to use the whole semester to write only one essay per group. The students were advised to contribute not more than one paragraph each week and to read the instructors' comments. They then revised their work and went on to the next paragraph. This step-by-step instruction was necessary because students had had little experience in composing essays. Previously, they had only done sentence to sentence translation practices from Japanese into English.

Besides pointing out fundamental grammar errors, the instructors focused on helping the students strengthen their skills in organizing paragraphs. The instructors gave advice on how to: a) use plain words, b) avoid repeating the same words and/or expressions, c) avoid biased or misleading expressions, d) develop simple, clear and logical paragraphs, e) present their findings in simple but effective ways. Accordingly, the students were advised to discuss in groups how to improve their pieces every time they read comments from the instructors. Also, they examined the difference between what they wrote and what instructors wrote if any alternative expressions were given.

Results and Discussion

Project 1

According to the survey conducted after the project, we found that the project was accepted very positively by the participants in spite of the fact that we had several technical difficulties during the early stages. Four out of five students expressed that they wanted to continue the same kind of project (and we did in a different format). We also found that through this project our students became more interested in learning English and foreign cultures than before. They expressed that their overall English may not have changed noticeably by participating in this project, but their writing skills and willingness to express themselves in simple English had improved drastically. This was seen clearly in the increased length and number of messages they wrote towards the end of the project. Below are the summaries of a number of e-mail messages exchanged and the students' evaluation and comments on the projects.

What was Difficult?

- My English was so poor.
- I didn't have enough time.
- I had never touched one till then.
- Tried to send many times but succeeded only a few times.
- We were too busy with school work.
- I was afraid to break the computer.
- I didn't receive many letters as expected.
- I wanted to read all the letters, but I had to wait till a computer was available.
- Yes. It was fun to correspond overseas.
- Of course, because I want to continue communicating with OU students and teachers.
- Yes, because it is a good exercise to use a computer.
- Yes, because I want to communicate more with people.
- Yes, because it is so convenient.
- Yes, I believe my English will improve if I continue.
- I felt so happy when I received a letter.
- Yes, if the partner makes sure he will write back to me.
- We took so much time and trouble to learn the computer. Why should we stop now?
- No, because nobody returned me messages.
- No. I live far away from here. I had no time.

There were several difficulties and drawbacks. The participants lacked keyboard skills and there were very few computers available. Since the students had had no previous experience with the keyboard, writing messages on the computer screen was an incredibly time consuming process. Consequently, some just gave up halfway and never wrote a message after the initial painful experience. Also, we had only two computers networked for 35 students at Chubu when this project started and, what was worse, these computers were available for students only from 10:00 to 5:00. However, the participants somehow continued the project. This suggests that it is possible to start an e-mail project with a limited number of computers if we have some creativity and patience.

Other challenges resulted from the demanding schedule of U.S. college life and the incompatibility of Chubu's semester and Ohio University's quarter schedule. The participants at O.U. all wanted to exchange their messages more often and had the facilities to do so, but since they were so busy fulfilling other course requirements and this project was not evaluated, some unfortunately did not write as often as they wanted. If this project had been a part of their registered course work and had been evaluated on some kind of basis, they might have written more frequently and had longer messages. Furthermore, there was a week break at Ohio University in the beginning of June while the Chubu semester ran continuously through the end of July. An unexpected inconvenience occurred during this break, when the mailing system and the account given to each student from the university were automatically changed. Thus, the teacher had to give another orientation session to familiarize the students with the new mailing system. During this lag time, the students at Chubu lost contact with their keypals temporarily but began actively exchanging messages with their classmates instead. They discussed boyfriends/girlfriends, weekend plans, summer plans. This shift developed on its own without any type of teacher suggestion or intervention.

The last problem was a serious one. Some students complained that they never received messages back from their keypals and therefore they quit sending messages. It is very important to let the participants keep in mind that unless they send messages they will not get messages sent directly back to them. E-mailing is a two-way street and both sides should work equally hard.

From the survey, we also learned that direct personal messages were sent more frequently than we realized. Originally the keypal exchanges took place in a list format and hence were not private, but the students figured out themselves how to send personal messages to their keypals directly off the list and they did so. Despite the fact that those students did not follow the directions we gave, we felt very pleased to know that the students were independently sending messages for communication purposes, which will eventually help them acquire the language.

To sum up, the project involved a lot of energy and time on both the part of the teachers and the students, but the rewards and benefits we received were far greater than the trouble. We encourage the readers to start a similar project.

Project 2

The most positive aspect of the project was the students who found that they could communicate using English even if their skills were not so strong. As seen in the table below, the students didn't feel that their English improved much as a result of participating in this project, but they felt a stronger motivation to improve their English and communicate their thoughts more clearly.

In addition, one class experienced a side benefit in that the classroom atmosphere improved because of the exchange of views and information on the mailing list. Some students commented that even though they were physically in the same class, they only came to have a good understanding of their classmates through e-mail. At the end of the semester, the students completed a questionnaire and rated the project in a number of areas. Seventy-five of the 79 students responded to the questionnaire. The results are shown in the appendix.

The following charts describe the areas of difficulty and frequency of exchanging messages. Again the most difficult part in participating in this project was not having enough time, followed by writing in English and deciding what topics to write about. Since some of the participants had experience in using computers in the previous semester, they did not feel using the computer was as difficult as it was in the first semester.

Since time was the most difficult constraint, most students did not write as often as they originally expected. As many as 40% of the participants wanted to correspond at least once a week initially, but only 18% of the participants did so and 17% corresponded twice or three times a month. The following chart shows the results very clearly. Some students never wrote messages. This is because when they first started to use the computer, they were totally confused and since this project was not forced on the students, those who felt uncomfortable at the initial contact with the computer chose not to write a message after their first attempt.

The topic that the students considered most interesting was personal information. Since personal messages were the messages mailed to them personally and the contents were extremely meaningful to that individual, it is understandable that personal messages were most appreciated by the participants. Some of the most frequently exchanged messages were as follows:

- messages written directly to me
- experiences of the other students
- foreign countries
- how to study English
- interest of the other students
- hobbies
- movies/music
- daily life
- sports
- love
- part-time jobs

Students were also asked to make additional comments on the project. The comments were a bit mixed. The students who frequently read and posted to the list had positive reactions and those who didn't participate regularly gave a variety of reasons, including lack of time and difficulty in using the computer. An extreme example of the positive reactions of the former group can be seen in the following comment:

> "I am full of my life!!! One of the reasons is 'E-mail'... Through E-mail, I could get acquainted with various people. I am happy!!!"

Project 3

The questionnaire given to the students at the end of the semester showed the benefits of this approach as follows: First, in writing, a) many of the students started to learn how to type and to use computers, b) they learned other ways of writing from members of their group and those in other groups, c) they learned how to choose plain words and/or how to consult dictionaries in practical ways, d) they enjoyed reading about other people's experiences overseas, and e) they had opportunities to think about cross-cultural experiences as well as finding simple and effective ways to explain their own culture; Second, in reading the comments from the instructors, a)opportunities for them to read English out-of-class were increased, and b)they learned which parts of their paragraphs were unclear, off-topic and/or misleading to readers; Third, in doing their own revising, a) they found steady improvements in their writing, b) they reviewed their grammar errors from a practical perspective, and c) they learned from comparing what they wrote with the instructors' suggestions.

In the course of advising the students through Internet Newsgroups, the instructors could find what common errors the students were likely to make, which led to in-class grammar explanations from time to time. The instructors also gave the students many reading materials on related cultural topics and this helped them learn how paragraphs were developed. In after-project evaluations, about 70 percent of the students answered they want to continue to use computers if they have another chance at this kind of intensive writing practice. Those who preferred conventional (paper-and-pencil) writing seemed reluctant to use computers throughout the semester because of the difficulty in getting used to typing or a general unfamiliarity with the machines.

This year's continuation of the project will add another dimension. Students will be paired with "keypals" from a country or countries outside of Japan. In the writing of their essays, this will provide the students with additional input about the target culture which they are writing about. Additionally, it will provide students with an additional level of feedback from another student of English (or perhaps even a native speaker). In informal interviews, students have already expressed a great deal of interest in the widening scope of this project.

Conclusion

Through the above three different e-mail projects, the authors gained a number of valuable insights. They learned that this kind of project motivates the participants to learn the language. This is probably because they are given an opportunity to use the foreign language for the purpose of genuine communication (for some of them the first time in their lives). What they exchanged using the network was not something which did not have a reader or whose reader was only their teacher. They each had several readers of their messages and each participant had his or her own reason to write messages in English. They used the language to communicate in a real-life situation. The whole activity was not a practice for some kind of future possible communication opportunity which might or might not take place, but their e-mail exchange was the communication itself. The authors also learned that the majority of participants were generally satisfied with their experience with the network. Therefore, for some reticent Japanese students, this teaching method may provide a totally new incentive to learn the foreign language. They also learned that those who were motivated could learn the language on their own since the opportunity is already provided. Some even started sending e-mail messages personally to people not involved in the projects at all in their free time. This suggests that they themselves searched for communication opportunities through English, which is rare in a conventional language teaching environment. The network also enabled them to learn the language in an inductive way. By exchanging messages with native speakers or people with better English proficiency in the world and by being constantly given models that they could imitate, they could learn various rules of the language, without noticing that they were learning these rules because what they were concentrating on was the message, not the structure of the language.

There are a number of concerns in conducting this kind of project. The biggest one is to find out if the participants are really acquiring language competence by participating. The feedback from the participants implies that they learned the language, in a fun and meaningful way, but they were never sure to what extent the e-mail projects contributed to the participants' language learning and how effective the projects were in terms of language learning compared to conventional ways of teaching. More empirical studies are definitely needed to answer this crucial question. (Imamura & Shiozawa, 1995; Shiozawa, Imamura, Schiefelbein, Oguri, & Ozeki, 1995). However, one thing we need to keep in mind in conducting empirical studies is that it is not because the students used the networked computers that they learned the language in an effective manner, but it is how they used the network. Finding effective and efficient uses of networked computers for language learning is the task language teachers and researchers need to undertake.

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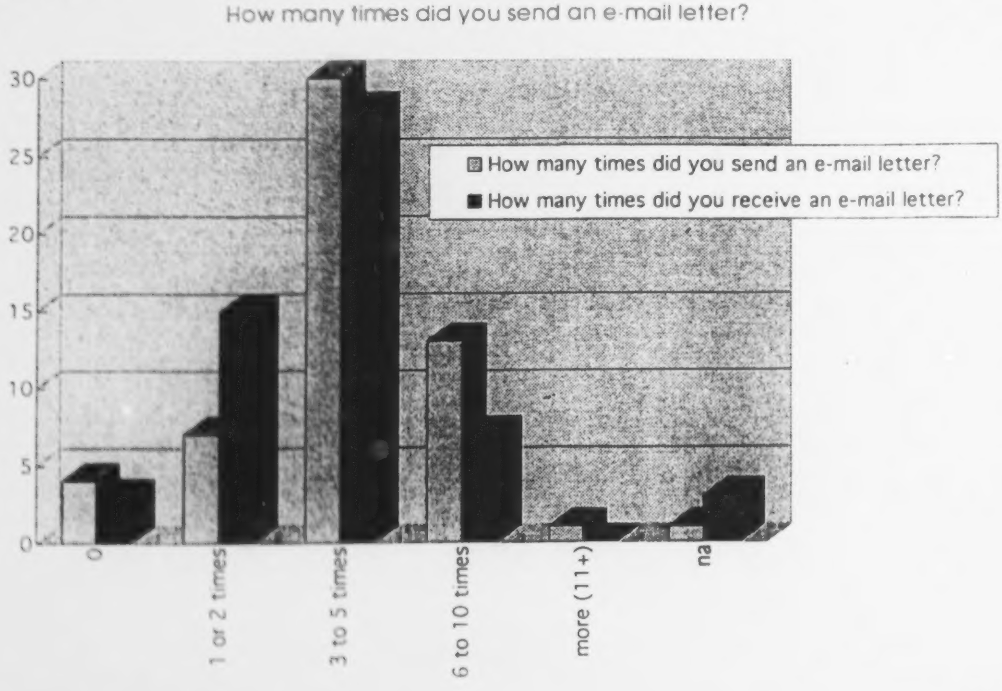
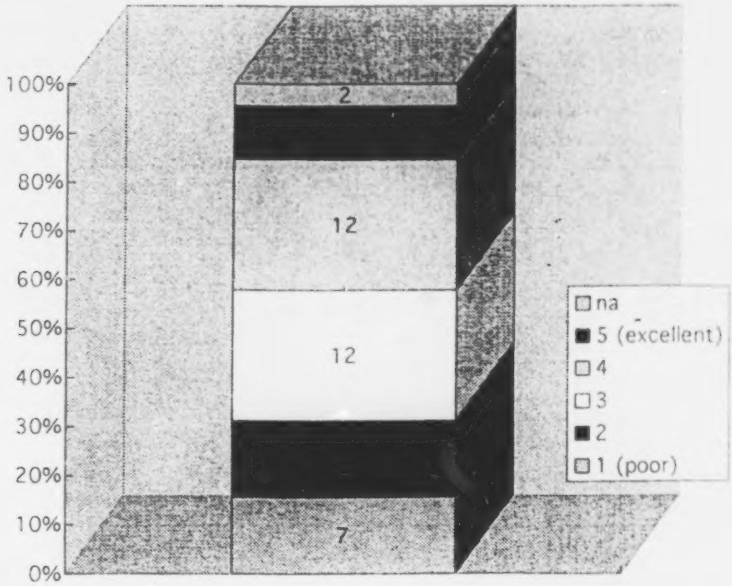
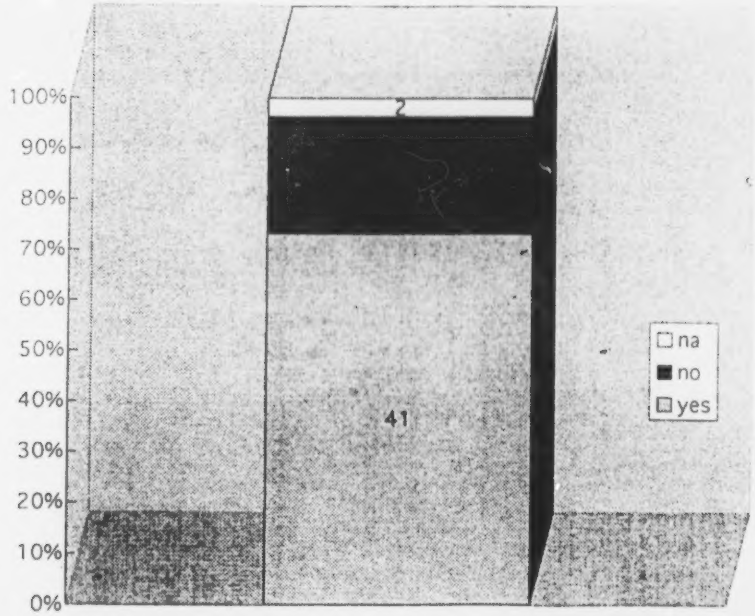
Appendix A





How would you rate this project on a scale of 1(poor) - 5(excellent)?



Would you like to continue using e-mail?

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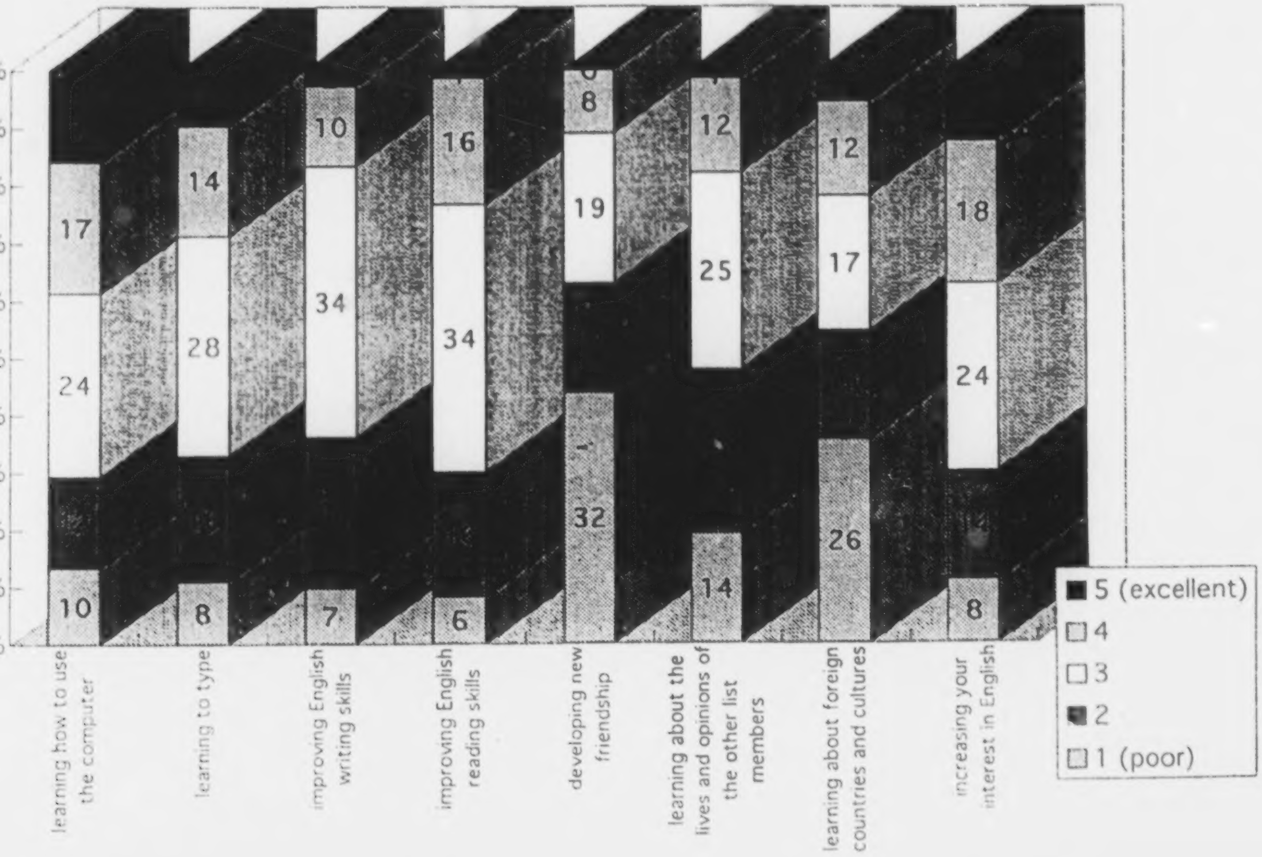
How would you rate participating in the e-mail list on a scale of 1 (poor) - 5 (excellent) in terms of the following?



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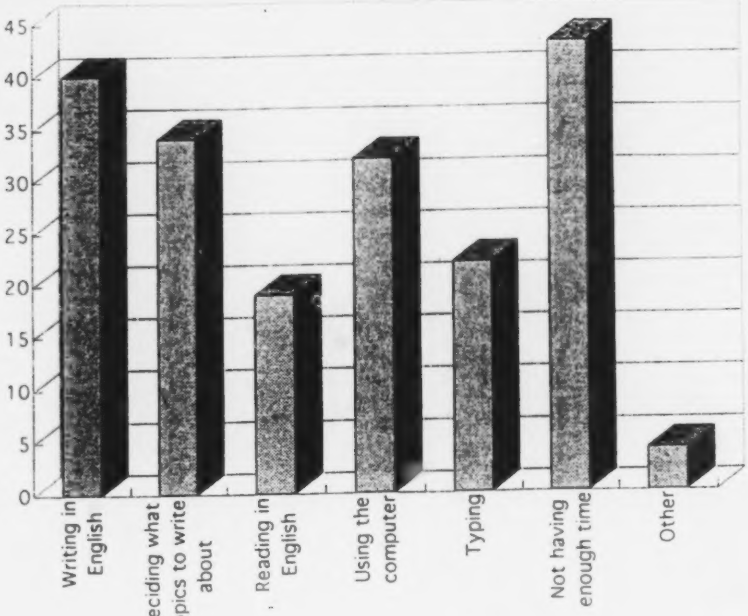
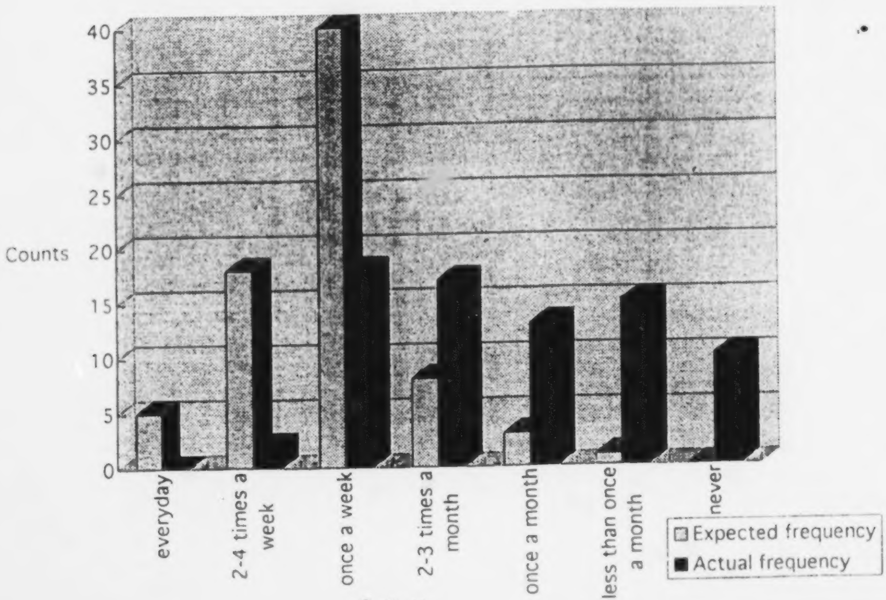
What was the difficult part(s) of the e-mail project?



The initially expected frequency of sending messages vs. the actual frequecy by each student



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Appendix B

Sample Message (unedited, original) from Project 1: Ohio-Chubu Keypal Exchange

Date: Sun, 12 Jun 1994 14:55:08 -0400
From: OPIE <opie23@.....cats.ohiou.edu>
To: culc-is@....solan.chubu.ac.jp
Subject: (culc-is 352) From O.U. #5th

Dear Y and R,

Hi, how are you doing? Well, have you ever gotten my mails yet? You said that I didn't send a message. But, I sent massages once a week by now. I think this is something trouble. Please check to your teacher. Your teacher may have my letters.

Well, last week I have been to Washington D.C. I had a fun so much. There were many memorials, monuments, and museums in Washington D.C.,and we can go there on foot. So,we walked so much,and I was so tired. Washington D.C. is very clean andmore room and leisure than Japanese capital,Tokyo. But, there is very dangerous. In the night,African-American(black people) was walking around the city. Well as I bought gifts whenever I visited certain structions,I result in a poor man.

I have to plan after my life. That's all, today. See you lator!
M.S.

Sample Message from Project 2: On-Campus List Project

>Date: Fri, 2 Dec 1994 11:57:08 +0900
>To: nlc@clc.hyper.chubu.ac.jp
>From: n9...@...hyper.chubu.ac.jp
>Subject: [nlc 399] Re: Speaking English
>Sender: owner-nlc@....hyper.chubu.ac.jp

Original message
>>>> Hello!Everyone.
>>>>I have a serious problem.I want to speak English more fluently.
>>>> But, my pronunciation is not good.
>>>> If you have a good idea, please tell me!!!
>>>>M

Reply 1
>>>Dear Marie and everybody who is worried about his or her pronounciation.
>>> Here is my suggestion: Stop worrying. As long as native English
>>>speakers understand your English, your pronounciation is OK, no problem,
>>>fine, good, super, well-done. What is important is what you can say in
>>>English, not how you say it. Relieved?
>>> If you still do not feel better, here is another key: Enjoy your
>>>English class at school. Listen to your teacher and yourself very
>>>carefully and try to immitate your teacher or the tape you listen to.
>>>Oguri sensei has native-like pronounciation. Ask her how she has aquired
>>>her pronounciation.
>>>Good luck.
>>>T.S. (teacher)

Reply 2
>>M-chan,
>>I agree with S-sensei 100%. What you say is more important than
>>how well you can pronounce a word. Your worry received lots of response
>>and no body says you should improve your pronunciation, right? So, don't
>>worry. Nobody is perfect!
>>OK, you still think you need to improve your pronunciation. Follow
>>S sensei's second advice. I don't think I am good enough yet but
>>I'll tell you what I have done and am still doing. I enjoy listening to
>>English. I like the sound of it somehow. I don't know why. I've tried
>>and am still trying what translators call "Shadowing" since I was at
>>college. (Not many years ago???!!!) Well, as I 've tried this in your
>>English class, you'd know what it is like. Very difficult, did you think?
>>Play any monologue (dialogue type does not suit this practice) tapes and

>>practice. I still do it from time to time when I drive. "Shadowing"
>>practice HELPs you correct your pronunciation, motivates you to catch up
>>English(your listening ability) and also improves your concentration. Don't
>>you think it's worth trying? Please talk to me anytime, ok?
>>Anyway, please keep in mind that there is no other way to improve your
>>English than using it. Go talk to the students from Ohio and Melbourn.
>>Don't be afraid.

Returned Reply
>Dear my teacher
> Thank you for your reply.I'm glad to hear that.I recovered confidence.
>Oh,I have a second problem. To tell the truth, I want to
>go abroad just now! Can I absent your class for a long time? But,
>I haven,t lot of money. It's kidding!
> Sincerely yours

CALL: Its Scope and Limits

Frank Berberich
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The rather pretentious title of this paper is meant to indicate that I propose to survey the grand sweep of what is, and what could be, in CALL. My approach to these two questions is to outline a general description of CALL using the basic notions of "dimension" and "space" as found in mathematics or physics, to provide a general framework within which any specific CALL object—most likely a piece of software—can be located and described. Using such a framework, it is possible to describe and compare widely differing CALL examples with a common reference language. The framework also illuminates what may be the most promising lines for future CALL development and suggests why these lines have received less attention than their importance would imply.

Deviating from the standard flow of academic presentation a bit, I would like first to suggest some limits to CALL in the far and near future, and the present state of the art. I call these, respectively, "The Star Trek," "2001," and "Now" scenarios. In the Star Trek scenario, a CALL system instantly integrates the target language in all its fullness into one's mind, completely linking the language into one's own experience and behavior. One instantly acquires native fluency the new language. The far more modest 2001 scenario involves an ideal blend of human and machine. It is fully human as a conversationalist and tutor, but scrupulously systematic in its analysis of an individual learner's weaknesses, selection of teaching strategies and materials, and accumulation of learner responses and performance histories. It is thus like a talented teacher with a perfect memory and unlimited library. Now, we are, of course, far from either of these futures. Most CALL involves keyboard/screen interaction and basic audio/visual multimedia. The activity flows linearly toward some short-term goal and the results are summarized in simple statistics such as the number and percentage of correct answers.

The Star Trek scenario, while interesting to speculate on for its implications in cognition and language, is a bit beyond reach. In contrast, the 2001 scenario is already being realized in very limited ways. For example, computer adaptive testing is highly individualized to each user, but built upon a database developed from experience with a large number of users.

Some Dimensions of CALL

CALL is usually described in terms of the linguistic skill or area it addresses, or the type of activity it offers. Thus, there is CALL for reading, listening and reading, and some recently for speaking; CALL for vocabulary, spelling, typing; CALL in the form of games, simulation, "drill-and-kill," etc. Wyatt (1987, pp. 87-88; cited in Dunkel, 1991, p. 27) offers the following list of activity types:

- Tutorials
- D & P
- Games
- Holistic practice—(high-level contextualizd practice—cloze)
- Modeling
- Discovery—situations encouraging inference
- Simulations—experiment with language using simulators
- Adventure readings
- Annotations
- Idea processors

- Word processors
- On-line thesauruses
- Spelling checkers

In Higgins (1995) we find the delightful set of functional descriptions for CALL:

> Do what I tell you.
> Guess what was there.
> Can I help you?
> How do I get out of this?

While useful, these descriptions are qualitative and not along similar dimensions, and they thus make comparison among CALL objects somewhat difficult.

Borrowing basic terms from physical science, I propose a description of CALL within a space of dimensions that can be used to describe any CALL object. By a dimension I mean a continuum that can be labeled and calibrated with a rough scale extending from less to more. A space is a collection of such dimensions, likely many more than the three or four we commonly think of, and it has the property that, broadly speaking, moving a point along one dimension in the space need not change the position along any other dimension. A CALL object can be represented as a point in this space and described and compared with other CALL objects using locations on each dimension. For example, we could say of a word processor that it is high in user input, but low in multimedia and interaction. In contrast, an information kiosk display might be high in multimedia but low in both interaction and user input.

Figure 1 shows a (non-exhaustive) list of dimensions of the CALL space, and the extremes of the continuum of each dimension. The terms used for these dimensions are expanded below. In most cases, a higher value along a dimension suggests a more powerful system, but this need not always be so. For example, a "drill-and-kill" system is for habit-formation and so focuses a very limited range of behaviors.

Information Flow Balance: The relative volume of input from the user and output from the system. In a word processor, the flow is almost entirely from the user; in contrast, a kiosk usually accepts simple push-button inputs and then displays much information.

Sequencing: The degree to which the CALL activity is controlled by the system. Sequencing can be highly non-linear but still controlled, as in the case of hypertext. This dimension describes an attribute related to the issue of the domain of CALL. At the low extreme of sequencing, any language activity using a computer qualifies as CALL or Computer Enhanced Language Learning, while the structured extreme represents so-called "strict" CALL.

Input/output flexibility: The degree that the user and system, respectively, can select from a variety of possibilities. For example, a push-button user-input is fixed, while a free-text input is variable. Similarly, the system can simply beep at an incorrect input, while in contrast, an artificial intelligence system selects from a large repertoire of responses.

User Memory/Cognitive Load: The degree that these are exercised. A game like *Concentration* imposes a high memory load but elicits little

Figure 1: Some dimensions of the CALL space and their values at low and high extremes.

Low	DIMENSION	High
One Way	Information Flow Balance	Interactive
Free	Sequencing	Structured
Fixed	Input Flexibility	Variable
Direct	User Memory Load	Hierarchical
Reaction	User Cognitive Load	Deep Thought
Training	Behavioral Variability	Teaching
Symbolic	Reality Bandwidth	Virtual
Local	Data Access	Global
Fixed	Output Flexibility	Variable
Surface	System Layering	Deep

cognitive activity, while a storyboard evokes considerable cognitive activity at, for example, word, grammar, semantic and text levels.

Behavioral Variability: The specificity of expected user behavior. A typing tutor is almost entirely for training finger and hand habits, while a hypertext-linked text is operating at a conceptual level.

Reality Bandwidth: How close to virtual reality the system approaches. A text-based system is almost entirely symbolic.

Data Access: The extent of the system's database. A storyboard database is usually just the words of the story, while the broadest extreme might be the Internet.

System Layering: The complexity of the system in terms of how much it is doing with the user data. A simple system likely only accumulates totals of correct responses and perhaps tracks the stopping point of a session. More sophisticated systems track multiple user input data sets for statistical analysis and further system refinement.

Figure 2: Some CALL systems located in the CALL space by their relative position along the dimensions of Figure 1.

DIMENSION	CALL EXAMPLE *WP*	*K*	*AG*	*SB*
Information Flow Balance	L	L	H	L
Sequencing	L	H	M	L
Input Flexibility	H	L	L	L
User Memory Load	H	L	L	H
User Cognitive Load	H	L	M	H
Behavioral Variability	H	L	L	M
Reality Bandwidth	L	M	H	L
Data Access	L	L	L	L
Output Flexibility	L	L	M	L
System Layering	L	L	L	L

CALL EXAMPLE: WP = Wordprocessor; K = Kiosk; AG = Action Game; SB = Story Board

RELATIVE POSITION: L = Low; M = Medium; H = High

Figure 2 shows some typical examples of CALL located in the CALL space of Figure 1. A salient feature of Figure 2 is that the word processor seems to be, overall, a rather powerful CALL system, an assessment that corresponds to the intuition that it is very useful in ESOL writing work. This power is, of course, highly dependent on the user and externally imposed task; the word processor itself is not a sequenced system.

Figure 2 also reveals the current state of technical development in CALL along each dimension implied by the examples. In particular, sequencing, and cognitive and memory loads seem to play a larger part, while data access and system layering are conspicuously low. Indeed, most CALL developers tend to select clear and focused tasks, and select contents that are appropriately challenging. Conversely, CALL developers—who tend to be language teachers rather than programmers, are perhaps less inclined to become involved with the sort of technical sophistication required to develop deeply layered systems that access large databases.

Figure 3: Present, near and far future CALL scenarios located in the CALL space by their relative position along the dimensions of Figure 1.

DIMENSION	SCENARIOS *Now*	*2001*	*Star Trek*
Information Flow Balance	M	H	H
Sequencing	M	H	L
Input Flexibility	L	H	L
User Memory Load	M	H	L
User Cognitive Load	M	H	L
Behavioral Variability	M	H	L
Reality Bandwidth	L	H	L
Data Access	L	H	L
Output Flexibility	L	H	H
System Layering	L	H	H

RELATIVE POSITION: L = Low; M = Medium; H = High

Returning to the general CALL scenarios outlined at the beginning of this paper, their positions in CALL space are shown in Figure 3. As might be expected, the 2001 scenario is a highly flexible system maximized in all dimensions. Combining human and machine strengths, it is the ideal active learning system. The Star

Trek system is more like a mind modification system—the user is passive and simply receives the new language.

These considerations suggest fruitful lines for CALL development. More attention should be paid to layered systems that can deal with flexible input and output, freely branch within and access a large base of tasks and data, depending upon user inputs, and can collect and process multiple user inputs for ongoing refinement of the system.

A hint of such a system is described in Berberich (1995), in which the notion of Computer Adaptive Testing (CAT) is extended to a teaching system. A CAT system draws upon a large database of test items, or "item bank," calibrated for difficulty using results from large samples of users. During a test, the CAT system continually adjusts the difficulty of items presented to a user based upon the user's immediately past inputs. The test is thus tailored to each user, and usually completed in a very short time.

Extending CAT to teaching involves building a database of language items with a very large number of calibrated drills and exercises for each item. The system first assesses the level and weaknesses of the user, formulates and proceeds with a learning plan based upon results from a large sample of similar users, but can deviate from the plan to branch to other language element work as needed.

The final refinement to such a system would, of course, be natural speech input and output and fairly natural conversational capability. Both of these are in the somewhat more distant future.

Summary

This brief outline of CALL space helps to reveal the scope of CALL by articulating specific and relatively independent dimensions of CALL space. Examples of CALL can be compared and assessed by locating them in this space, and fruitful approaches for future development are clearly revealed. It appears that such approaches will involve systems that process user data on many levels and accumulate data from multiple users for ongoing system refinement. Some limits of CALL are discussed in the form of present, near and far future scenarios, and these scenarios are assessed within the CALL space described.

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Section Four

Classrooms and Culture

Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication

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Introduction

This morning, as I turned on the television in my room, I was shocked by the news of the assassination of Prime Minister Rabin of Israel. In our ever-shrinking world where people must learn to live with each other—to accept each other as individuals—it is sad to know that there are still many people who will not tolerate other people's values and opinions. While a sad incident in itself, I feel that it more than anything forces us to reconsider the importance of intercultural and interpersonal communication in our world today.

Let me begin my talk with an experience from my junior high school days. I had lived in the United States and Canada for six years before returning to Japan at the age of thirteen. When I returned to Japan, I had almost completelyforgotten my Japanese, outside of the ability to conduct everyday conversation. The first year back in a Japanese school, I barely understood what was going on in class. I could understand the "language" to an extent, but I could not really understand the "meaning" of what was being said. In a sense, I was placed in a situation which resembles that of many people who, in a foreign cultural environment, are unable to comprehend the real meaning of the circumstances in which they find themselves, even when they understand the language being used. For example, when a Japanese replies, "*Kangaesasete kudasai* (Let me think about it)" to a request, foreigners might understand the "literal" meaning of the phrase and expect a positive response. However, this phrase is very often used as a polite and indirect way of saying, "No." Understanding the language does not necessarily mean that the meaning underlying its use is also understood.

Let us now look at this problem of language and meaning from a slightly different perspective. The Japanese are very often criticized for not speaking out and giving their opinions in discussions with foreigners. There are several possible reasons which might help to explain this phenomenon. One might be cultural. As was suggested by Masao Niisato of the Ministry of Education onthe first day of this conference, it is true that the Japanese cultural tradition emphasizes the art of non-verbal communication: the less language used to communicate an idea, the more refined it is considered to be. Take *haiku*, for example. There is a limit to the number of syllables allowed in its creation, but the meaning expressed and inferred is vast.

Aside from this "cultural" explanation, however, there is another point I would like to mention. The educational system itself, which in many cases is still very much teacher-centered, might be another reason. There are very little so-called "show-and-tell" type activities in Japanese education. In fact, some people suggest that this "passive" learning environment deprives the Japanese of the opportunity to express or to form their own opinions. However, this is not necessarily a problem showing a lack of "what" to say, but "how" to say it.

The fact that there are so few Japanese capable of attaining the superior level in oral English on the ACTFL speaking scale, which requires the ability to use English to "support opinions," "make hypotheses," "discuss abstract topics," and "handle linguistically unfamilar situations," does not mean that Japanese cannot use the so-called cognitively demanding functions of language— they are capable of doing so in their own native language, Japanese.

The problem here is not simply one of either cultural differences or "not having anything to say." It is a problem of not having enough proficiency in the functional use of English to express higher-level cognitive skills—for the expression of one's opinions and ideas, in other words, for "self-expression."

Recent Changes in the Direction of Foreign Language Education in Japan

I have tried to indicate through the above examples the importance of cultural factors as well as the development of self-expression ability in assessing the proficiency of Japanese in their use of English. Changes made by the Ministry of Education in its guidelines for high school foreign language education point to the importance of the ability to use English for communication purposes, as well as the importance of incorporating cultural factors in the education process for the purpose of developing skills for international communication. Furthermore, the Committee on University Education, an advisory committee of the Ministry of Education, has noted in its proposal that university education must emphasize the development of critical thinking skills, as well as the ability to cope with modern techonology, the development of self-expression, and proficiency in foreign languages.

In other words, the emphasis on English education in Japan is now without a doubt placed on oral communication, with the ultimate aim of attaining international understanding and cooperation, the development of critical thinking skills, and the use of English self-expression skills towards that end.

Cultural Factors in Foreign Language Teaching

The aim of my talk is not to simply elucidate and argue about all the complicated and diverse socio-psychological phenomena that have been researched in the area of intercultural communication and attitude change. Nor do I have anything near the final word concerning the incorporation of intercultural communication in our foreign language curriculum. However, what I do want to say is that the way culture has been treated in the foreign language classroom has most often been (at least in Japan) in the form of "supplementary" materials for the students to know for interest's sake only, and not as a skill to be used in communication. In this "test-oriented" country where virtually everything is tested, knowledge about culture and intercultural communication taught in the English classroom has never been tested. I'm not saying that cultural factors should also be included in our already overpacked examinations—although, heaven forbid, there seems to be talk about doing so. All I'm saying is that although cultural factors have been included in our English classes, they have never really held any position of significance in our teaching of English for the purpose of communication.

However, the aim to teach English for oral communication purposes presupposes that we will be communicating with people of other countries and cultures; what meaning is there in Japanese talking to each other in English? This, in turn, suggests that cultural and intercultural communication factors should be given primary importance in our foreign language curriculum.

What Kind of Culture?

It is possible to consider the basic values and beliefs of a people who speak a common language as an essential part of their culture. It is this kind of culture that we were introduced to most when we studied English literature in university. I remember being told by my professors the importance of studying the works of classic western philosophers such as Plato and Aristotle, the Bible, and the works of Shakespeare. We were told that unless we understood the basic ideas expressed in these works, we could not really understand English literature—because these were the unchanging foundations on which all subsequent western civilization was built.

I do not question the validity of this claim. The great monuments, fine art, music, and other artifacts of the past are also a part of this grand historic view of culture. They are representive of an era and the values most cherished in it. Some people call this High Culture in contrast to the Low Culture that we experience in our everyday lives.

However, no matter how important these cultural values might be in learning about a civilization, knowing them alone does not give us much help in understanding what constitutes "privacy" for a certain person, or the intricacies of human relationships (social distance vs. psychological distance, inner circle vs. outer circle, etc.) and the linguistic forms used to express them.

Then there is the "Overt" everyday culture. Here belong cultural events which can be explained and described such as the holidays of Christmas, Halloween, Valentine's Day (White Day), Independence Day, Children's Day, Respect for the Aged Day, etc. There are also non-specified events such as weddings, funerals, commencement/graduation ceremonies, sports events and cultural events. More traditional cultural arts and sports such as flower arrangement, tea ceremony, judo, sumo, American football, and baseball are also a part of this culture. And finally, there are things like manners—for all occasions—which would also be included in this category. All of these events can be systematically explained and described.

As the case of the young Japanese high school student mistakenly shot to death trick-or-treating on Halloween in the United States shows, there is a need not just to learn about, but also learn how to behave in these overt cultural events. However, once you learn them, normally that's it.

There is one other kind of cultural concern which tends to have a greater impact on our day-to-day intercultural dealings. We could call this "Covert" culture—simply betause, unlike Overt culture, it is so much more difficult to define and explain. Suppose you were at a party, what topics could you talk about? With a man? With a woman? How would you decide the kind of language to use in a certain situation? Informal? Formal? A special register? etc. What kind of language function does a certain social situation warrant? Should you say "I'm sorry," or "Excuse me," or "Watch where you're going"? How do you interpret a human relationship when it is different from that in your own culture? For example, attitudes towards old people, little children, the opposite sex, etc. There are no easy ways to come up with objective solutions to these problems—solutions agreeable to everybody. There are no set "rules," as in the case of Overt culture; futhermore, unlike the High culture's unchanging cultural values, they are changeable with the times, as well as with the individual situations inwhich they appear.

In teaching intercultural communication at the everyday level of personal communication, I think it can be seen that what we need to teach more, if at all possible, is the Covert kind of culture which I just mentioned. Overt cultural events should, of course, be taught. The basic western values should also be taught in literary and historical contexts. However, if the object of our educational endeavor is to be directed towards the education of Japanese capable of coping with people of foreign cultures in actual communication situations, then we will have to lay more emphasis on the teaching of Covert culture.

Covert Culture as a Personal Phenomenon

One of the difficulties with treating Covert culture is that it tends to be revealed more in terms of individual behavior than in terms of social manifestations. In other words, because there is little systematic description possible, each member of the cultural community will have more or less the freedom to define its characteristics according to his or her own interpretation.

What this says, in turn, is that the teaching of Covert culture must involve more than simple stereotypical explanations of what a certain cultural trait means. It must necessarily include individualized realizations of the cultural trait as it appears in actual communication. In other words, intercultural communication involving the understanding of Covert culture must of necessity be taught through actual communication—it cannot simply be "read" from a textbook on intercultural communication.

The Spread of English

I have been talking up to now under the assumption that language and culture are inextricably related to each other. However, even here, in areas where Covert culture takes precedence over other more stereotypic and well-defined types of culture, there is quite a large room for diversity—even among native speakers.

What I would like to do now, is to show that this underlying assumption concerning the relationship between language and culture itself may not be as obvious as it may seem. David Crystal (1995) has written that the number of speakers of the English language, if all three circles (inner circle—mother tongue, outer circle—official or semi-official language, expanding circle—EFL) are added together, should come to somewhere between 500 million to more than 1 billion speakers. Of this number, he notes that there are more than 60 countries in the world where English is the dominant or official language.

If we assume, therefore, that English is used by people from, at least, several dozen different cultural backgrounds, how practical is it to teach the language as if it were inextricably related to one or two native English-speaking cultures? Is it possible for us to learn all the cultural values and ideas inherent in the diversity of cultural backgrounds represented by this spread of English? How can we possibly remember all the information? Again, the only practical thing to do is to actually communicate with people who use English, and try to understand them at the individual, personalized level.

Culture as Social Schema and Personal Schema

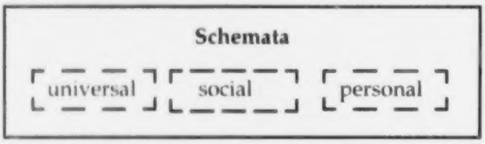
What I'd like to do at this point is to look at culture as a cognitive structure which each person has created within himself, mostly through the life-long experiences he or she has accumulated. It is normally considered that when we face a specific communicative situation, for example, relevant information, or schema, from the stock of past experiences we have accumulated is recalled and activated to help us comprehend and provide the means to get through the situation in the best possible way. There is still very little we know about this schema, but a basic distinction has often been made between what can be called "social" schema and "personal" schema (social events vs. personal events). In other words, we human beings are normally born into a society in which certain values and rules are already at work. The human relationships we experience, the ethical values we adopt, the linguistic, pragmatic and sociolinguistic conventions we acquire—these all form parts of our social schema. As long as we are born into a certain society, we cannot fully free ourselves from its social schema.

However, our cognitive structure is also greatly influenced by the personal experiences we undergo. The activation of a negative schema of, for example, a "dog" created through the experience of having been bitten by a dog as a child, has nothing to do with the social image of "Dog" in that culture or society—which might be based on a positive schema: Dog = man's best friend. In other words, the composite schemata we activate at every instance consist of both social and personal schema—making it very difficult for even individuals living within the same cultural melieu to really understand each other.

There is one more component I would like to introduce into this schematic framework. I will call this "universal" schema, because regardless of who we are, or where we come from, I believe that there is a basic universal love or consideration for other people that we can always fall back on. I'm sure that many of us have been in situations in the past where both linguistic and cultural schema were lacking, and yet, a basic belief in the goodwill of the people we faced helped to form a congenial human relationship. This is what I mean by the activation of "universal" schema. I know that social schemata (e.g. caste and other social hierarchical systems), as well as strong personal schemata (e.g. past experiences of being victimized in criminal incidents and violence) very often over-ride this universal schema. However, if our objective is to develop intercultural understanding and initiate active intercultural communication, then we cannot just sit behind the windows of our social and personal schemata, looking at what goes on outside, safe and sound within our own little world. We must take the risk of walking out into that world; and a reliance on the existence of a universal schema, I believe (whether conscious or not), is what helps us take that risk.

Figure 1 is a simple summary of the components of the schemata we normally use in our everyday lives.

Figure 1: **Schemata**



Scripts and Their Characteristics

Going back to social and personal schemata, one of our problems is to find out whether or not there is anything in the broad definition of schema (including virtually everything that a person has experienced in his life) which might more readily be used in our teaching endeavor. There is a special kind of schema called "script" which consists of routines that we go through in our everyday lives— very often without even being aware of doing so. The importance of these scripts is that our daily lives are assumed to be composed of one script after another. We begin our day with a personal script consisting of a routine sequence of events that we go through every morning as we get up. During the course of the day, we enact our roles in different kinds of social scripts such as eating at a restaurant, taking the train or bus to school, shopping, making reservations, attending meetings and classes, etc., and then end the day with a personal script consisting of a sequence of events we enact after going home and going to bed.

The importance of scripts can be seen in the role they play in our daily lives. Scripts provide us with a "predictable" and very often automatized framework within which we can enact our roles without placing too much of a burden on our mental capacities. For example, there are times when we get to work only to become suddenly worried about whether we had locked the door to our house, turned off the lights, etc. In more cases than not, we find out that we HAD locked the door and HAD turned off the lights. Since these things are a part of our morning script, we tend to do them without even being aware of them. The same goes for social scripts. We do not think about what to do in what sequence when we take the train or bus to work. We can already predict what will happen when we go to a restaurant. So even when we are enacting a certain script, if the script has already become automatized, we can use the time to think of other things.

One thing we can teach as part of intercultural communication is the typical social scripts which exist in a foreign culture. At the same time that we can teach the typical sequence of events comprising the various social scripts, we can also teach the linguistic expressions which appear with them. Many of the expressions used in scripts are formulaic and idiomatic, and they attain a special meaning within the scripts in which they appear. When a waitress says, "Is everything all right?" or "How's everything?" she is not asking about our physical condition. When a Japanese says, *"Tsumaranai mono desu ga"* and gives somebody a present, she does not really think it's a "stupid or worthless" gift. These expressions attain their special meanings only because they are used in a specific script. If a friend drops a stack of important documents and you say, "Is everything all right?," you mean something quite different from what the waitress meant in the restaurant script. In other words, scripts have tendency to define meaning, and, therefore, are ideal situations in which to learn culturally significant linguistic expressions.

Pragmalinguistic and Sociolinguistic Schemat

Scripts, of course, are not the only kind of schema we activate in communication. There are also so-called language functions which we use depending on the pragmatic intentions we have. If we want to ask someone to do something for us, we would use an expression with a Request function (e.g. would you, could you, can you, will you, etc.); if we want to make a suggestion, we might use an expression from an Advice function (e.g., why don't you, I suggest, it might be a good idea to, etc.), and so forth.

These functional expressions are sometimes included under the term pragmalinguistics. One characteristic is that in most cases, the situation and the intention is clear to the speaker, but the appropriate expression is not. Many of the research in the area of interlanguage pragmatics has dealt with pragmalinguistic functions and the different ways they are expressed in different languages as well as different sociolinguistic situations.

There are other non-script sociolinguistic schemata which are even more troublesome than the pragmalinguisitic problems. These are sometimes called sociopragmatics, and the difference between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic phenomena is that whereas in the case of the former the situation is given and the functional expression is the problem, in the case of the latter, the problem is that the social situation itself is not correctly acknowledged. Problems can be related to privacy—what can be an appropriate topic of conversation in which situation; human relations—construing the socially accepted human relationship,which, in many societies, could be the basis for selection of topics, register, etc.; taboos—what is forbidden in certain societies and cultures; and values and beliefs—religious, ethical, etc.

Individual Variation

As I mentioned earlier, the more covert a cultural trait becomes, the more varied its representation becomes, and the more individual variation there will be in its interpretation. Although speakers of the same linguisitic community might have little difficulty in dealing with social script situations, once they start dealing with non-script situations, even they will experience all sorts of misunderstandings and confusion, as can be seen in Tannen's (1986, 1990, 1994) popular works.

Teaching social scripts and the relevant expressions, although there are various degrees of freedom in both sequence and linguistic expression, is relatively easy even in the foreign language classroom. Many of the expressions can be learned in display activities and simple role play situations.

The difficulty is with the non-script situations. In simple situations, pragmalinguistic expressions might be relatively easy to learn. However, in situations where sociopragmatic considerations must be included in the decision as to the expression to be used, then things can become very complicated. What is the appropriate thing to say? Should I use a direct or an indirect form of expression?, etc. Furthermore, if individual native speakers begin to differ even among themselves, coupled with the fact that the English language is now being used by so many people of so many different cultural backgrounds, it becomes essential to find a way to deal with these more difficult intercultural communication problems at the individual level—through actual communication acts.

The Need for Self-Expression

If intercultural communication must ultimately depend on interpersonal communication ability, then we must direct our foreign language classes towards the training of interpersonal communication. At the very beginning of this talk, I mentioned that the difficulties experienced by the Japanese in expressing their opinions is probably to a large extent a problem of not having had proper training in self-expression. When people talk about teaching conversation, most people only look at the interactional side of "speech"—as the term conversation suggests. However, there is another side to speaking, and that is the use of language for the purpose of forming thoughts and ideas—in other words, for self-expression purposes.

The method I have suggested elsewhere to teach self-expression takes an idea from research in learning strategies and Di Pietro's (1987) Strategic Interaction. I have used a form of restrospective reporting of the underlying perceptions, feelings, thoughts, ideas, and intentions of interactants in problem-solving situations, which define the verbal expressions they use. I have tried to use the method , for example, to show how differences in perception might result in different or similar linguistic expressions and behaviors, in both native and intercultural situations. The basic idea has been to develop a method whereby both cultural and individual differences could be observed and incorporated in the teaching of interpersonal communication. The basic outline of the method is given below.

Figure 2 Using Self-Expressions to Solve (Intercultural) Communication Problems at the Personal Level

<Situation where intercultural communication gap exists>

Step 1: Mutual Analysis of Intercultural Communication Gap

Mutual Self-expressions about communication situation
same perception? ↓ *different perception?*

Comparison of feelings and thoughts behind (verbal) behavior
social schema? ↓ *personal schema?*

Step 2: Adjustment of Differences Towards Mutual Understanding
universal schema?

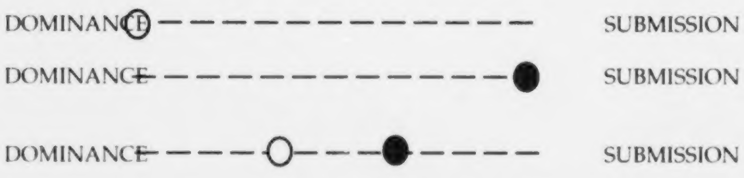
For example, given a situation in which it is now five o'clock, signifying the end of the workday, the perception of a Westerner might be that the rest of the day can now be used for his own private life. However, to a Japanese worker, it might be perceived as the beginning of the second stage of his job in which, over food and drinks, human relationships among the workers are formed and talked about. If, because of the different perceptions about the situation, a conflict in opinion occurs between the foreign worker and his Japanese colleagues, the idea is to have the parties involved express their own thoughts and feelings about the situation—in other words, to tell their side of the story. There might be social schematic differences as well as personal schematic differences.

However, the next step, after everything has been said by both sides, is to find a means to adjust each other's position in order to come up with a common solution on which both sides might agree. This will be discussed in the following section of this talk.

Intercultural Communication as a Mutual Activity

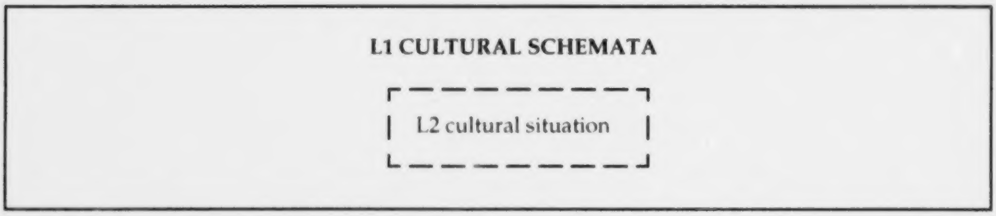
As was inferred above, another point which must be mentioned is that communication in any form must be mutual. As Widdowson (1984) points out, being either too dominant in one's opinion or too submissive, to the extent that you cannot even express your own ideas about a certain topic (think of two lovers—everything looks "too" perfect—you tend to accept everything about the other person, only to find out later...), becomes a hindrance to real communication. It's not easy to maintain a level of dominance and submission which makes an "optimal" level of communication possible—a level of communication in which both participants learn to accept the other's position and ideas. However, the process of communication is just such a process of *adjusting* the levels of dominance and submission so that an optimal level can be reached by both participants (see Figure 3).

Figure 3: Adjustment as an Essential Component of Communication



If a person were so dominant that he were to stop at the stage of expressing his own position, without consideration for the other person's position, he would be going only so far as the stage of self-expression. If a person were so submissive that he had no opinions of his own, he would not even be at the stage of self-expression. However, what is necessary is for the interactants to adjust their positions so that they can come to a solution on which both might agree and act accordingly.

Figure 4 Monocultural Level: I understand, but I am correct and you are wrong



Levels of Intercultural Communication and Universal Schemata

To sum up, let me present three patterns of intercultural communication which we normally observe. The first could be called the monolingual level of intercultural communication. At this level, the interactant tries to interpret all foreign cultural phenomena in terms of his or her own cultural framework (too dominant). When people complain about why foreigners do things their own way and cannot be like us, we are at this monolingual level of intercultural communication. This might be schematized as in Figure 4.

The second level is the one we are probably most accustomed to. It could be called the intercultural level, where "knowledge" and understanding of the differences between cultures is acknowledged. This is the level where intercultural awareness develops as a cognitive function. However, having an awareness of the similarities and differences between cultures does not necessarily mean that the problems arising from the differences can be solved. This might be schematized as in Figure 5.

The third level, called the transcultural level, is just that level in which differences between cultures is overshadowed by a more universal type of schema that I mentioned earlier. I believe that, despite all the retrospective discussions that might be held between speakers of different cultures, there is a limit as to how far we can go with language alone, because language is, after all, a product of the culture from which it was born. It is at this level that the ability to communicate at the interpersonal level becomes the significant factor. The *adjustment* attained between individuals will most likely be based on some form of universal schema, and this is where our educational endeavors should be directed. This might be schematized as in Figure 6.

Final Words

What I have tried to do in this talk is to show that intercultural communication and the understanding of cultural issues is an essential part of our foreign language education. At the same time, I have tried to show the difficulties involved in stereotyping cultural traits—especially covert and non-script traits. As a result I have emphasized the importance of educating

Figure 5 Intercultural Level: I understand your position.

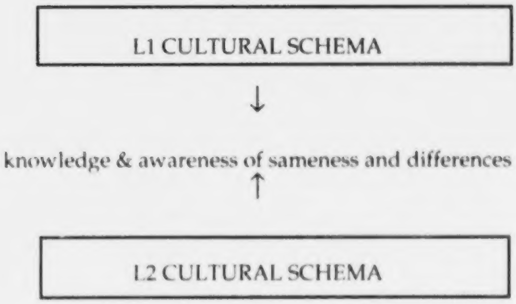
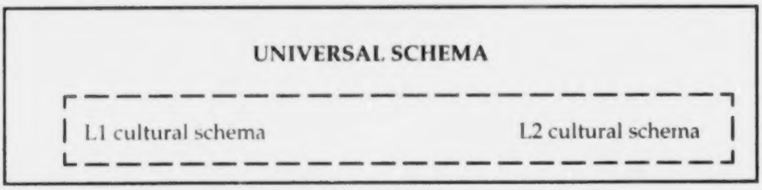


Figure 6: Transcultural Level: "I understand your position, so let's try to solve the problem."



Japanese students towards developing their abilities in self-expression. Intercultural communication is, after all, interpersonal communication. Unless we learn to deal with individuals, I do not think we will be able to solve the problems in intercultural communication either.

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Classroom Cultures: East Meets West

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Introduction

This paper is an attempt to outline some significant cultural differences between the Anglophone West and Japan which may impinge on classroom practice. It seeks to draw together the findings of a number of researchers and commentators in the field, with the author's own experience of teaching EFL both in Japan and other contexts. However, before exploring cultural differences it needs to be said that cultural similarities may in fact be even more significant though less problematic than cultural differences. It is also advisable to realise that when dealing with generalizations about cultures, the context will determine to what extent these generalizations apply.

By necessity, a number of gross generalizations which ignore significant communication style differences among Anglophone Western countries, as well as sub-cultures within Japan, will inevitably be made. Readers should be aware of the use and limitations of such generalizations and realize that cultures are complex and continually changing. All cultures incorporate competing sets of beliefs and practices which tend to invalidate stereotypical notions held by those outside the culture (see Mabuchi 1995).

Cultural differences are primarily understood here as referring to differences of culture, i.e. beliefs, values, practices, institutions, products, in terms of geographical location, nationality, or ethnicity. It is appreciated that other equally valid definitions of culture play an important role in learning and teaching outcomes. Some of these include institutions as cultures (Holliday, 1994) where the character of the setting and the cultural norms of particular subject areas influence the patterns of teacher-student communication (Greene & Hunter, 1993).

Over the years, in fact, both ESL and EFL have established their own pedagogical cultures. Teachers are acculturated appropriately through educational and training courses so that they operate from a common core of beliefs and values. Social class and gender as well as the age of the students and the presence of minorities inasmuch as these constitute cultures may also provide a significant basis for cultural misunderstandings but it is not possible to discuss these here.

Communication - East and West

Western Patterns

One of the most significant communication differences between the West and Japan is that in speech communication the *information* function as opposed to the *relationship* function of language is emphasized (Scollon & Wong-Scollon, 1995). And so the imperative to "get to the point" and to avoid "beating around the bush" is frequently invoked. Western communication aims for objectivity and according to Steward and Bennett is "problem oriented, direct, explicit, personal and informal" (1991, p. 155), while at the same time it seeks to minimize status differences. Recent research by Miller (1994), cautions against asserting too strongly the polarity of directness and indirectness when contrasting Western and Eastern cultures arguing that the differences are more of degree and are highly dependent on context.

For Westerners silence in conversation is regarded as an absence of words (doing nothing), often associated "...with something negative--tension, hostility, awkwardness, or shyness"(Condon, 1984, p.40). Barnlund notes that silence is often seen:

> as a breakdown in communicative rapport or, more seriously, as a sign of a deteriorating relationship. Silence must, or should be, filled with more words as soon as possible. (1989, p. 131)

The functions of expressing: personal opinions, disagreement, contradiction, counter argument, are other very significant aspects of Western communication. Linked as they are to the Western emphasis on individualism (Hecht, Andersen & Ribeau, 1989), the individual forges their own identity through the expression of their personal thoughts, feelings, and opinions in conversation with others.

Because of the pseudo-adversarial nature of Western communication style where interlocutors may openly disagree with the opinions of others, interruptions are common, length of turns tend to be short, and topic changes may be frequent by comparison with Japanese speech communication (Murata, 1994) .

Japanese Patterns

By contrast, Japanese conversation lays more stress on *Phatic communication* (Condon, 1985) i.e. the *relationship* function of language is emphasized. More attention is placed on the quality of interaction rather than the information that is exchanged at least in initial contact situations. Therefore, display of feelings and sensitivity is often more highly valued than verbal skill in conveying meanings (Cathcart & Cathcart, 1994).

In contrast with Western individualism, the group plays a more significant role in Japanese communication so there is considerable effort made to save face and maintain harmony.(Ting-Toomey, 1989). This leads to a style of communication dominated by the features of: "group mindedness, consensual decision-making, formalized speechmaking, ... listener responsibility" (Anderson , 1993, p.104).

This greater need to save face in collectivist or group-oriented cultures leads also to an avoidance of open disagreement. Thus there are often many indirect ways to saying "no" such as "silence, ambiguity, expression of apology, regret, doubt, lying" (Ueda quoted in Cortazzi, 1990, p.63).

Japanese communication is also characterized by a greater use of non-verbal codes to express meanings. So much so that in the classroom students may clearly (to them) indicate lack of comprehension by facial expression rather than communication through words. Thus according to Barnlund:

> A greater proportion of communication is possible without words; more of the intended meanings are conveyed through a sigh, a puzzled look, the character of a gift, a sharp intake of breath. (1989, p.128)

Apart from non-verbal communication, silence itself plays an important communicative role for the Japanese. Unlike the West, where it is seen as an absence of meaning, in Japan and many other Asian countries, it is itself "a reflection of meanings no less profound than those expressed through speech" (Barnlund, p.129).

In contrast to the pseudo-adversarial nature of Western communication patterns as described above, Japanese communication often involves longer speaking turns where there are fewer disruptive interruptions but frequent use of *aizuchi* or back-channeling. These *aizuchi* signal the listeners' attentiveness and interest and are most often expressed through verbal expressions such as *hai, ee, so desu ne, honto,* and nonverbal signals such as smiling and head nodding (Rinnert,1995, p.4).

Persistent Beliefs About Learning - East and West

In Japan, the sheer effort of mastering the Japanese reading and writing system continues to reinforce the belief that learning requires discipline and perseverance whereas in the West learning is often presented as a potentially fun activity so much so that a U.S. Department of Education report on Japanese education noted that: "A certain amount of difficulty and hardship is believed to strengthen students' character and their resolve to do their best in learning and other important endeavors. "(1991, p. 144) This difference in expectation about the nature of learning has obvious relevance to the teaching situation in Japan where oral communicative methods, originally developed in the West, have recently been introduced into high school English classes. To what extent do language games, contests and quizzes, which are an essential part of the stock-in-trade of the communicative language teacher, fit into the existing expectations about how learning should take place in Japanese educational settings?

Another belief about learning which the West is no longer ideologically comfortable with but which still holds fast in Japan is that knowledge is something to be *transmitted.* Students take notes from the teacher and memorize them as opposed to recent Western moves towards individualized learning and learner autonomy. Of course, it may not actually be the case that learning is so different in either part of the world. What is significant are the beliefs that are espoused by each culture as opposed to what is actually done in practice.

In Japanese education there is too, a greater emphasis on the "right answer" because exams are seen as crucial whereas in the West, where a more pluralistic society is advocated, knowledge is often treated as *relative* and *negotiable*. Hence, more attention is paid to the thinking process involved in the formulation of an answer than to the correctness of the answer itself. Another significant point of difference is that Western notions of ability and IQ levels are de-emphasized in Japan at the public school level. As Kato-Tsuneyoshi points out: "...the Japanese generally believe that high-achieving children are diligent and reliable while low-achieving children are not. That there may be differences in innate abilities is simply not considered. "(1991, p. 170) Instead effort is stressed as a part of the broader spirit of *gambaru* found in the culture. While officially there is little recognition of differences in ability, the private *juku* and *yobiko* schools recognize through their streaming practices that ability levels of students do in fact vary considerably.

Teachers and Students - East and West

The Japanese teacher is seen as authoritative, particularly with regard to subject matter taught, whereas in the West, teachers are increasingly seen as *facilitators* and *resource persons* rather than as experts in a body of knowledge. In Japan the teacher may function as a model of morality, sharing in the moral formation of their students in ways that might be seen as more appropriate to parents in Western contexts. Teachers may also play the role of counselor or mentor to a far greater degree than Western teachers.

Thus trust and intimacy in the student-teacher relationship parallels the Japanese psychological construct of *amae* where the individual can rely on the benevolence of another much as a young child in the West might assume a certain attitude of indulgence on the part of a loving parent (Doi, 1974).

Contrasting Classrooms

Japanese Classrooms

Japanese education's primary goal is to socialize young people into the norms and practices of society and the roles they will be expected to perform. Norms of interaction tend to be defined by status differences between teacher and student and the context of the classroom and school which prescribes the kind of social interaction possible. Hence the Japanese classroom is in many ways a "ritual situation" (Lebra, 1976) and is seen as such by teacher and students alike. Therefore, a common aspect of communicative language teaching, i.e. , the exchange of personal ideas and feelings between interlocutors fits uneasily into this setting.

Another feature markedly different from the Western classroom is the tendency of Japanese students to engage in "consensus checking" (Anderson, 1993, p. 102) when they are asked questions which may not have a single obvious answer. This typically involves a student conferring with other students before proffering an answer; a behavior which tends to violate the Western norm of dyadic interaction between teacher and individual student

Another feature of difference between Japanese and Western classrooms is that in Japanese classrooms, where the teacher is the authority, students are required to listen and relect on what they hear. To some extent this echoes traditional Buddhist writings which stress that " knowledge, truth, and wisdom come to those whose quiet silence allows the spirit to enter"(Powell & Anderson, 1994, p. 324). Thus, the free voicing of personal opinions encouraged so much by the communicative approach is largely avoided (Cathcart & Cathcart, 1994, p. 299).

Western Classrooms

In line with the broad cultural patterns of Western culture classrooms in the Anglophone West stress individual development and personal experience. The ideal is that learners should creatively build up knowledge and concepts through activity, discovery, participation, and experience of verbal expression. Concomitant with this is the norm of *loquacity* where students are expected not only to have something to say but to be eager to express their opinions on a wide variety of topics. There is also a tendency to "reflect a Socratic ideal where student-teacher interaction plays a central role in the pursuit of knowledge" (Powell & Anderson, 1994, p. 324). Evidence of such interaction is often considered a measure of pedagogical success by Western teachers. Faced with the realities of Japanese classrooms Western teachers are often tempted to consider their lessons a failure when they fail to establish similar patterns of interaction with their Japanese students.

Some Solutions

Given the differences between Japanese and Western Anglophone countries both in classroom expectations and practice, it should be obvious that these are likely to be highly problematic for Western teachers who have been acculturated in a different set of educational norms and practices. Below are a few practical "solutions" to some of these problems. They can never be sure fire solutions in themselves since problems arise not only in cultural but also in socially specific contexts. They may, however, help teachers to experiment with approaches that might in the final analysis be more conducive for working with Japanese learners.

- Become more aware of Japanese cultural patterns. This will increase tolerance and understanding of what is really going on in the classroom.
- Partially adapt to Japanese patterns of communication and classroom interaction.
- Make your own expectations concerning classroom norms explicit to students.
- Allow more wait time for students to respond to questions.
- Write key questions on the blackboard.
- Avoid asking personal opinion questions to individuals before the whole class.
- Let students discuss ideas and opinions in groups before asking for them for a response.
- Appoint group leaders and reporters to take responsibility for group activities.

On occasion, allow students to rehearse what they are going to say by first letting them think and write down their ideas before being asked to speak.

- Learn to tune in to Japanese body language rather than relying too much on verbal cues.
- Teach appropriate Western style body language in the context of communicative competence in English.
- Teach English hesitation behavior and encourage students to use it ("well," "ehh," "mmm," "Let me see," "I'm not sure," "Sorry?")
- Give explicit instructions about what you want students to learn, e.g. "Learn off these two dialogs."
- Where you are dealing with elementary students and the topic is controversial or complicated allow students to first discuss in Japanese before asking them to do so in English. It may be that they have never thought through the topic before in their mother tongue.

Scratching the Surface

I have here been merely scratching the surface in outlining some of the cultural differences that affect educational practice in Japan and Anglophone Western countries. Culture itself is only one factor in the examination of classroom interaction. Others worth exploration are the notion of teachers and learners as individuals and how this might influence the teaching-learning equation. Motivation, age, class size, and learner abilities also play their part.

The points of cultural difference outlined in this paper should not be seen as as absolutes in any sense, but rather as indicators of possible areas of misunderstanding particularly for foreign teachers working in Japan. Whether and to what extent foreign teachers should adapt to Japanese classroom norms is debatable (Cogan, 1995). It is worth considering however, that Japanese norms, like Western norms are constantly being re-defined by shifting cultural and social patterns which continually challenge the established beliefs and practices not only of our students but also hopefully, of ourselves.

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Laying Down the Law: Teachers' Use of Rules

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Introduction

This paper offers an analysis of the way rules function in the classroom by applying insights generated by recent debates in legal theory. Scholars of the Critical Legal Studies movement (referred to hereafter as "The Critics") have been adept at identifying the logical contradictions which are pervasive in legal discourse. These contradictions—between formal rules and ad hoc standards; between subjective values and objective facts; between intentionalism and determinism—render all legal disputes problematic. As Mark Kelman points out:, "There are ... no easy cases." (1987, p.4).

The Critics have also devoted a great deal of effort to demonstrating that law and society are interpenetrating, and thus inseparable. For this reason, it would seem that the classroom, as a basic social institution, can offer especially fertile ground for legalistic analysis. In what follows, I will focus on the continual conflict between rules and standards—a conflict which I believe constitutes the fundamental ambiguity of the teacher's classroom role. And, as this difficult role is further complicated when the teacher and students are of different cultures, I will also examine the way in which the teacher's dilemma varies between cultures. In short, in a vein parallel to the Critics, I wish to demonstrate that there are no easy classes.

Rules and Standards

A classic treatment of the conflict between rules and standards can be found in Duncan Kennedy's "Form and Substance in Private Law Adjudication" (1989). Kennedy's article opens with the recognition that there is a conflict in legal discourse between a jurisprudence based on clearly defined, general rules, and a jurisprudence based on equitable, ad hoc standards. A typical example of a rule in this sense would be a "voting age": "No one under the age of eighteen will be allowed to vote." Rules are relatively easy to administer, as their criteria are objective and verifiable—like a person's age, or the speed of a traveling automobile. A standard, on the other hand, refers directly to one of the abstract principles of legal thought, such as "good faith" or "unconscionability" or "reasonableness." Standards are considered more subjective than rules, as people may well differ in what they consider to be "reasonable" or "reckless." Thus, standards are more difficult to administer, and require the judge to exercise greater discretionary power.

In practice, however, jurisprudence oscillates back and forth between these two modes of reasoning. For example, a clear-cut rule regarding speeding, such as a 35 mile-per-hour speed limit, will usually not be enforced uniformly, as standards of applicability will be introduced: a car may only be pulled over if it is traveling "dangerously" fast, or if it is moving faster than surrounding cars, or if its driver appears "suspicious" (cf. Kelman, pp. 50-51).

In "Form and Substance," Kennedy makes two claims regarding the conflict between rules and standards. His first claim is that "altruist views on substantive private law issues lead to willingness to resort to standards in administration, while individualism seems to harmonize with an insistence on rigid rules rigidly applied" (1989, p.36). By individualism, Kennedy refers to a conception of the self whose interests are distinct or even opposed to the interests of others. Thus, individualism encourages autonomy and self-reliance. By altruism, Kennedy refers to a conception of the self whose interests are inextricably bound up with the interests of others. Thus, altruism encourages sharing and sacrifice.

Kennedy's second claim is that the conflict between rules and standards can never be resolved:"The opposed rhetorical modes lawyers use reflect a deeper level of contradiction. At this deeper level, we are divided, among ourselves and also within ourselves, between irreconcilable visions of humanity and society" (1989, p. 36).

Other Critics have described these irreconcilable visions in terms of the distinction between public and private, or between the free market and the family. The public realm of the market combines an egalitarian ideology with an individualist ethic, while the private realm of the family combines a hierarchical ideology with an altruist ethic (Olsen, 1989, p. 256). But as legal discourse labors to maintain the distinction between the family and the market, it is simultaneously working to undermine this distinction. In the words of one Critic: "The state intervenes in the market to make it more like the family, and in the family to make it more like the market" (Olsen, 1989, p. 257).

In the following account of rules and standards in the classroom, I will view the contradiction as a conflict between professionalism and paternalism. As I see it, rules allow teachers to be objective, impartial, professional; while standards allow teachers to be responsive, caring, paternalistic. And, like the distinction between public and private, the market and the family, the line that separates Professionals from Paternalists is constantly being erased and redrawn.

The Fundamental Ambiguity

In the classroom, the conflict between rules and standards is well expressed in what some educators have called "a fundamental ambiguity of the teacher's classroom role" (cf. Thorndike & Hagen, 1977, p. 288). On the one hand, the teacher is expected to be objective and impartial. On the other hand, the teacher is expected to know and respond to the individual qualities of each student. Each of these "roles" requires that classroom norms be formulated in a different manner. In the classroom, as in society, norms can be cast as explicit rules, which are applied uniformly, or as informal standards, which are applied "case by case." By the first model, a teacher's policy regarding, for example, lateness should take the form of an explicit rule: any student arriving to class after a specified time will not be admitted, whatever the circumstances. By the second model, the teacher might make no formal statement regarding lateness per se, but rather would consider each case on its merits, asking perhaps: why was the student late?, did his or her arrival interrupt a class activity?, etc.

Each model has its virtues and its flaws. Rules will often fail to achieve their intended purpose. A rule regarding lateness will exclude or punish some students who are in fact eager to learn (and do nothing to improve the quality of students which do happen to come to class on time). Standards, on the other hand, introduce the possibility of capricious or prejudicial enforcement. Students may find themselves punished only when the teacher is in a bad mood, or may begin to notice that, say, only pretty female students may arrive late to class. Explicit rules give students clear warning about the consequences of their behavior. Informal standards take into account the unique needs and abilities of each student.

Syllabus as Contract

Kennedy focuses on contract law, an area in which legal doctrine simultaneously embraces a rule position (stating that a contract has been made if there exists an explicit offer and an explicit acceptance of that offer); and a standard-like position (requiring that both parties deal in "good faith"). In modern American legal practice, rules are privileged and considered the norm, while standards are viewed as being invoked only when necessary to deal with exceptions. But the Critics (e.g., Kennedy, 1989; Dalton, 1989; Kelman, 1987) maintain that in any legal dispute the decision to employ a rule or a standard remains essentially arbitrary.

Interestingly, at American universities, the metaphor of the contract is frequently invoked to describe the function of the syllabus. At Citrus College in California for example, faculty members are presented with a handout, one section of which is entitled "Suggestions for Making a Syllabus" (1994). The handout reminds faculty that "a class syllabus is considered a contract between an instructor and the students in the class, [thus] instructors should be careful to include all important information pertaining to class criteria and student performance." In this way, the syllabus gives students "fair notice," telling them what to expect and what is expected of them. And, like a contract, it is considered binding. That is to say, if a student came to you and said that she missed a exam because she didn't know the date, you might take out a copy of the syllabus and point to where the exam date is clearly written.

But, as the Critics might have predicted, this tight little rule-governed regime must inevitably allow for the admission of ad hoc standards. Consequently, later on in Citrus College's "Suggestions for Making a Syllabus," we read (under the category "Miscellaneous"): "Syllabi are not written in stone. As the semester progresses, instructors may change due dates and assignments... ". Now, I am not suggesting that syllabi should be written in stone. But I do suggest that this simple, supplementary, "miscellaneous" comment throws the entire notion of contractual obligation out the window. Imagine, for example, if the student who had missed the exam had simply replied: "Yes, but syllabi are not written in stone." Clearly, a contract that is not binding (mutually binding) is not much of a contract at all.

But regardless of whether your syllabus is "written in stone" or not, the question of explicitness is always an issue. This issue is especially relevant to teachers' attempts to deal with student misconduct. The more vague and standard-like the prescriptions, the more likely they are to cause misunderstanding. That is, if you urge students to be "prepared" or "conscientious," your students will probably interpret these words differently than you do. Thus you risk being accused of not giving students fair warning. Of having students say: "But I didn't know that I was doing anything wrong." On the other hand, the more explicit and rule-like your syllabus, the more you foster a literal-minded attitude toward rules. That is, it encourages them to "walk the line." Thus a detailed list of forbidden behavior ("sleeping in class, reading comic books, chatting with friends, doing homework for other classes") will inspire a student to look up at you innocently and say: "But Mr. Bornmann, I'm not reading a comic book. I'm reading a newspaper."

Of course, the way we solve this problem is by having it both ways, employing rules as well as standards, thus: "no sleeping in class, nor reading comic books or newspapers, nor chatting with your friends, nor doing homework for other classes, nor any other inappropriate behavior." We start out very rule-like, list several examples, then sign off with a vague, objectively undefinable word like "inappropriate." This is how we preserve our discretionary power, and reserve the right to look at a student who is doing something we don't like, and point our fingers, and declare: "THAT is inappropriate behavior!" But the point remains that whenever we move from rules to standards (or back again), we are passing between our two different modes of reasoning. As professionals, we have begun to act "unprofessionally" at that moment when we have suddenly switched modes. At that moment, the professional is reduced to the mode of the exasperated parent, whose final line of defense in a dispute is: "Because I said so." We have been transformed into a Paternalist, whose prescriptions issue not from "neutral principles," but from personal authority.

Western Professionalism vs. Japanese Paternalism

Unlike contract law in the United States, which favors the rhetoric of individualism, contract law in Japan favors the rhetoric of altruism. Consequently, the contract in Japan is "simple and flexible" (Oda, 1992, p. 198). It is viewed as "tentative rather than definite" (Kawashima, 1974, p. 15), and disputes are resolved "by means of ad hoc consultation" (Ibid.) In fact, anthropologist Hiroshi Wagatsuma (1984, p. 377) suggests that the conflict between written laws and ad hoc judgements is parallel to the Japanese concepts of *tatemae* ("official stance") and *honne* ("real intention"). In short, in Japanese contract law, not rules but standards such as "good faith" and "harmony" (Wagatsuma, p. 375) hold a privileged position.

Not surprisingly, the Japanese university syllabus follows the model of the Japanese contract. The syllabus tends to be short and flexible, if it even exists. And, more importantly, even if the syllabus is detailed and explicit, the students are less likely to view it as a binding contract in the Western sense, than as a simple statement of the teacher's intentions; a plan that the teacher can revise at any time, in order to better serve the needs of students. The Japanese syllabus, we might say, is *tatemae*.

This same flexibility is apparent in student evaluation. In language classes at western universities, "objectively measured performance ... is typically the basis for grading" (Clayton, 1993, p. 127) At Japanese universities, however, language teachers are usually free to consider subjective factors like effort and improvement, when formulating grades (Clayton, 1993). Again what we see is a willingness to favor subjectivity over objectivity, flexibility over explicitness, standards over rules.

Americans place great faith in the notion that "no one is above the law," and the rule of law is often invoked to protect individuals against arbitrary power. In a heterogeneous society, subjective "case-by-case" evaluation opens the door to charges of discrimination. American educators must do the utmost to appear impartial and objective. With respect to the fundamental ambiguity, they lean towards professionalism. Japanese educators, on the other hand, function in a homogenous society where there is less of a need for explicitness because of shared assumptions. And, reflecting its Confucian origins, the teacher/student relationship in Japan is predicated on trust (on the part of the student) and benevolence (on the part of the teacher). With respect to the fundamental ambiguity, the Japanese professor leans towards paternalism.

In the end, it must be acknowledged that rules have an undeniable effect on those on whom they are exercised; and that the way in which we use rules in the classroom not only encourage certain forms of behavior, but also fosters a particular vision of society and self. At the same time, it must also be acknowledged that neither vision can ultimately dominate the other. On the contrary, each vision requires the other as a necessary supplement.

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Student Behaviour: Whose Norms?

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If the teacher comes from one culture and the students from another, whose norms of classroom behaviour should apply? This is a question, which, in my experience, is seldom asked explicitly by foreign teachers who work in Japan. It is possible that the question is not asked because the answer is clear and unambiguous. I would like to suggest, however, that this is not the case. Far from being unproblematic, I believe, the question is one which requires the constant application of our considered, professional judgement.

To address the question, I will first outline some of the literature showing that the norms of classroom behaviour do indeed vary across cultures and then review current approaches to the issue among the language teaching community in Japan, before questioning some of the assumptions on which these approaches rest. My goal is not to argue against all attempts by teachers to apply foreign norms to Japanese classrooms but to encourage teachers to reflect on local norms and re-examine their attitude to them.

Classroom Behaviour across Cultures

Cross-cultural research into classroom behaviour is extensive but most of it focuses on minority education contexts (see, for example, Trueba, Guthrie & Au, 1981; Trueba, 1987). The studies that have been done on foreign language classrooms (Sato, 1982; Durham & Ryan, 1992) and numerous anecdotes from foreign teachers (Maley, 1986), however, confirm the conclusion of the minority-education research that each culture has its own expectations about what should happen in the classroom.

These expectations affect every aspect of classroom behaviour from assumptions about the role of education in people's lives to the minutiae of teacher/student interaction. McKay (1992) has contrasted the American model of education based on competition and the Japanese model which, she says, is based more on individual effort. Reinelt (1988) has looked at acceptable wait-times between teacher question and student answers in the classrooms of various cultures. Ryan, Durham and Leonard (1994) have explored differences in the expectations that Australian and Japanese students have about student misbehaviour and teachers' reactions to it.

Less formal reports of differences in classroom behaviour are to be found daily in the staffroom of any school where foreign teachers work. Students are seen as too slow, too lively, reluctant to volunteer, unversed in the basics of classroom procedure like how to hand in exercise books, lacking in manners when addressing teachers. All these complaints can be seen as the results of cross-cultural differences.

Dealing with the Differences

JALT's 1993 International Conference on the theme of "Language and Culture" offered a chance to gauge how foreign teachers in Japan are approaching the differences between their own and their students' expectations of classroom life. A selection of titles from the Conference Handbook (JALT, 1993, p. 30) reveals that there is interest in this issue:

"Classroom Expectations: Behaviour and Pedagogy"
"Student Behaviour in EFL Classes"
"Listening to Lectures: Overcoming Cultural Gaps"
"Opening a Second Culture Classroom"

However, the perspective of the overwhelming majority of these presentations is that it is the students who should be taught to conform with the teacher's norms. One presenter had made a study of foreign teachers' expectations about classroom behaviour and asserted in her abstract: "The results of this study can potentially help Japanese students become more aware of what they might do to narrow the culture-communication gap between themselves and their native-speaker teachers" (JALT, 1993, p.65). Another offered a series of critical incidents as tools to train students in how to take lessons from foreign teachers (JALT, 1993, p.41).

At previous conferences, presenters have outlined programmes to train Japanese children to be "active learners" (Paul, 1993), to use videos to school students in how to behave in class with a foreign teacher (Barfield, 1990), to offer college students rewards for "desirable behaviour" (Juguilon, 1988) and to implement a "hidden curriculum" to change students' behaviour (McGovern & Wadden, 1992).

If there was near-consensus among the presenters, the opinions of those attending these presentations seemed to be just as monolithic. I went to many of the presentations and repeatedly heard similar arguments: "If the students are there to learn English, they should learn to behave like American (British, etc.) students," was the refrain of presenters and audience alike.

Counterpoint

Finding very few references to the issue in the language teaching literature, I turned instead to another area of cross-cultural education: economic development programmes and technology transfer. Hofstede (1986), in a paper written with such programmes in mind, concludes:

> If one chooses to cope with, rather than ignore. . .the perplexities of cross-cultural learning situations, there are obviously two possible strategies:
>
> 1. Teach the teacher how to teach;
>
> 2. Teach the learner how to learn.
>
> . . . If there is one foreign student in a class of 30 with a local teacher, (2) is the obvious approach. If the number of foreign students increases (1) will very soon become necessary. For an expatriate teacher, (1) is imperative. (p. 316)

Why, then, does this not seem to be the consensus among JALT members?

Justifications

Proponents of the view that seemed to predominate at JALT 93 offered the following justifications for it:

1) language students expect a foreign teacher to be different.
2) language teaching is, by definition, behaviour modification.
3) learning a language necessarily involves learning the culture of the people who speak it.
4) the classroom behaviour imposed by foreign teachers has been shown to be more efficacious in the learning of languages than indigenous practices.

Whilst not wishing to reject any of these arguments outright, I think a great deal of circumspection is needed in their application to this issue. I shall deal with them one by one.

1) It's What the Customers Want

The argument that students expect a foreign teacher to be different is an attractive one. The *cachet* of the foreign teacher is apparent throughout the world and particularly here in Japan where it is the mainstay of the multi-billion yen conversation-school industry. This is clearly not just a matter of the foreign teacher's superior acquaintance with the target language and culture, but also a result of viewing foreign teachers as cultural artefacts in themselves. For many students, the possibility of contact with different ways of thinking and living is the main allure of a foreign language. The foreign teacher embodies this allure. If the teacher conducted classes just like a local, much of the attraction would disappear.

This argument holds true, however, only for students who have chosen to study with a foreign teacher. In such a situation, I believe there is a strong case for the application of some foreign norms in the classroom. Yet many of our students have not chosen a foreign teacher: many of them have been assigned to a compulsory language course which happens to be taught by a foreigner. For such students, this reasoning is inappropriate.

2) Language Teaching as Behaviour Modification

Since language is learned behaviour, acquiring another language, by definition, involves modification of behaviour patterns. The goal of language teaching is to adjust students' behaviour so that it is closer to the norms of the target language. When joining a class the students implicitly grant the teacher the right to modify their behaviour in this way, but only in so far as it will help them to become more proficient users of the language.

If we were to ask students to practice making "l" and "r" sounds standing in front of a mirror, this would presumably be a modification of their normal behaviour patterns but it would be justified by its close relationship with studying the language. Other behaviour changes (becoming mass-murderers, rising each morning at 4:30 to pray) would clearly not be justified by this rationale. The question then becomes where exactly to draw the line between reasonable, pedagogically-justified behaviour changes and unreasonable ones. The two sections which follow address different aspects of this question.

3. Language = Culture

That language and culture are inseparable is a truism that needs little documentation here. Understanding a language involves understanding the culture that gives rise to it and using a language means entering, however briefly or imperfectly, into its culture. The competent speaker must be aware not only of linguistic norms but also of sociolinguistic and pragmatic norms that exist in societies where the language is spoken. Thus, language-teaching necessarily involves the transmission of culture and there can be no objection to classroom activities which inculcate this kind of cultural knowledge, since they are clearly covered by the implicit agreement.

However, there is ample cause to question how students' ability in the language of a society can be enhanced by exposing them to the classroom-culture of that society, for this is the element of culture most likely to be learnt from the imposition of foreign classroom norms.

For one group of students, the answer to this question is clear. For students who are being prepared to study in a country where the language is spoken there is undoubted benefit in preparing them for the kinds of interactions they are likely to encounter in the classroom whilst abroad.

For students who are not being prepared to study abroad, however, the answer is less clear. As Andersen has demonstrated (1985), the micro-culture of the mono-cultural classroom is imbued with the ethos of the culture that surrounds it. Foreign teachers could argue that in imposing their own classroom norms they are providing students with insights into the ethos of the target culture.

Since few students are trained as ethnographers, to be effective, this approach would need to be accompanied by some overt encouragement to the students to consider the cultural values that lie behind their own and the teacher's expectations of classroom behaviour. If the clash of expectations remains unanalysed, it can easily be dismissed by the students with such thoughts as "All foreign teachers are strict" or "The teacher does not know how we do things in this country."

To avoid such emotional reactions, it would perhaps be best, in constructing a course, not to involve students as participant-observers who must analyse the teachers' expectations as well as living up to them but to use videos of classrooms from the target culture that would allow students to observe without participating.

Language courses which overtly attempt to turn the students into classroom ethnographers are very rare. One reason for this is perhaps that it is doubtful that such ethnographic investigation represents an efficient use of teacher and student time and, more importantly, that the insights it would provide are of a kind that would be of direct use in improving proficiency in the language.

4. Tried and Tested Methods

Perhaps the most convincing argument for expecting students to conform to the classroom practices of their foreign teachers is that the methods of the teacher have been shown to be effective. As most language teaching research is carried out in English-speaking countries, it is understandable that teachers arriving from these countries may know more about it than local teachers or students.

The assumptions behind this argument are often reinforced by the apparent ineffectiveness of local classroom practices. In the case of Japan, the school-system may or may not be teaching English efficiently but it is undeniably successful in producing high-school graduates who say "I have studied English for 6 years [following local classroom practices] but still I cannot speak English."

A foreign teacher, faced with such students, may well come to the conclusion that the solution to the perceived inefficiencies of the local system is to teach in a different way, one shown by research to be effective. Thus the application of foreign classroom procedures becomes desirable as the best way to help students achieve their goal of linguistic proficiency.

Many programmes of learner training are based on these assumptions. Learner training began by looking at the attributes and activities of successful language learners. From this was developed a number of practices that can be taught to less successful learners to help them to become more successful (Oxford, 1989).

This argument for changing student behaviour, then, rests firmly on research into the efficiency of different behaviours. The first point to be made is that many of the behaviours that foreign teachers seek to encourage are unsupported by research. Behaviour like bowing to a teacher before a lesson begins, consulting classmates before answering a directly-addressed question from the teacher, and speaking quietly when dealing with a teacher may or may not be hindrances to more efficient language learning. There is no research to prove the matter one way or the other. Yet the eradication of such behaviours is often a goal of learner training packages offered by foreign teachers in Japan (e.g., Skevington, 1993).

For the areas in which research exists, the question is how widely the research results are applicable. Much of the research is carried out in the major English-speaking countries with subjects who are already living in the target-language community (i.e., *second* language students), yet the students dealt with in this paper are still in their own country (i.e. , *foreign* language students). The differences in the linguistic environment alone should give cause for thought about the applicability of research data from one group of students to the other. There are many other differences between the two groups: their motivation for learning the language, average class-size, average age, and familiarity with the target culture all differ.

Studies of the effectiveness of various classroom practices over a wide variety of contexts do exist (especially in the areas of teaching methodology and classroom activities) and such studies can be carried out locally. Where research results applicable to the local context are available, they represent a powerful argument in favour of modifying teacher and student behaviour. However, where applicable studies do not exist, the argument is much weaker.

Conclusion

As the above comments show, there are several areas in which a strong case can be made for the application of foreign classroom norms. Specifically, they are:

- when students have voluntarily chosen a teacher with foreign ways.
- when students are being prepared to study abroad.
- when research directly applicable to the teaching context suggests that such modification will lead to more effective learning.

However, these points are far removed from the unproblematic generalisations we started with. Each calls for careful judgements to be made by the teacher.

Here the model of the "reflective teacher" (Richards, 1990) seems to be a useful one. This model sees teachers as constantly gathering information about the classroom and the learning going on there and using this information as a basis for thousands of classroom-level decisions about how to proceed.

What I am proposing is that the norms of behaviour to be applied in classrooms constitute one of the areas about which teachers who work across cultures need to reflect more deeply than many of them have done so far.

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What Makes a Good Language Lesson?

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Rationale

Many elements go into the making of a language lesson: teacher, students, materials, atmosphere, ground rules, physical facilities, supplementary resources available, to name but a few. This study is an attempt to understand, from the students' point of view, what elements are necessary to make the lesson a good one. It is part of an on-going research project which will, at a later stage, also involve asking similar questions of teachers. It is based on the assumption that a good way to find out what students are thinking is to ask them. It also assumes though, that for various reasons, teachers do not always have the chance to consult their students on such basic issues. It is not motivated by the idea that good teaching consists solely of giving students what they want. Rather, it rests on the belief that informed teachers take good decisions and that students' views are one of the areas of which teachers should seek to inform themselves.

It is particularly important for foreign teachers to inform themselves about their students. Previous research projects I have been involved in have convinced me that students' views on such basic issues as what a good teacher is (Durham & Ryan, 1992), a good student (Ryan & Durham, 1992) or a just punishment (Ryan, Durham & Leonard, 1994) differ across cultures. Foreign teachers have seldom had the opportunity to be students within the culture in which they are teaching and so are likely to make incorrect assumptions about what their students are thinking.

Japanese teachers, too, can benefit from such a survey. Although it is a common habit to think of cultures in terms of nation states, the perception gaps that exist between generations or between successful students (who are likely to become teachers) and less successful ones (who are not) can be just as large as many occurring across national borders.

The Survey

Students at various kinds of schools and colleges were asked to respond in written Japanese to the open question (also in Japanese):

> Think of the best English lesson you have ever had. What was good about it? What made it different from other English lessons? Please give a detailed answer.

The question was left deliberately open (some might say vague) in order to avoid pre-judging the answers by suggesting that they might involve certain categories. The dangers of asking an unintentionally loaded question are particularly strong when, as in this case, the researcher and the respondents come from different cultures.

The question was printed at the top of a sheet of A4 paper. At the bottom of the paper was a line asking respondents to record their gender and their grade in school. The rest of the paper was blank for the respondents to write on.

The survey was conducted during regular English lessons (See Table 1). This has the potential disadvantage of focussing students' attention on things that have happened in that particular class but the potential advantage of catching them in a "language lesson" frame of mind.

No time-limit was suggested to the respondents but most of them finished within 10 minutes. The responses were analysed to extract the elements of a good lesson which they mentioned. If, for example, a response said: "The best lesson I ever had was a conversation lesson with a foreign teacher," it was read as one mention of conversation and one mention of a foreign teacher.

As more responses were analysed, the list of elements grew longer and it was possible to group some of them under headings such as "Type of Lesson," "Atmosphere" and "Materials." This grouping was done in order to make a long list of elements digestible for consumers of the results and is not intended to suggest that the students themselves would have grouped their responses in this way.

Table 1 **Sample Data were collected from the following groups of students**

Data Samples

Company class:	13 respondents;	2 female, 11 male
University - high level (non-English majors):		
1st year:	97 respondents;	32 female, 65 male
2nd year:	55 respondents;	22 female, 33 male
3rd year:	11 respondents;	8 female, 3 male
University - mid-level (2nd year students):		
English majors	26 respondents;	9 female, 17 male
Non-English majors	19 respondents;	13 female, 6 male
Engineering university (1st year students):	38 respondents;	4 female, 34 male
Women's university (1st year students):	23 respondents;	all female
Junior College (English majors):		
1st year:	41 respondents;	all female
2nd year:	51 respondents;	all female
Senmongakko (1st and 2nd year):	27 respondents;	9 female, 18 male
High School - high level:		
1st year:	34 respondents;	11 female, 23 male
2nd year:	30 respondents;	16 female, 14 male
3rd year:	27 respondents;	13 female, 14 male
High School - mid-level (3rd year students):	37 respondents;	20 female, 17 male
Junior High School - low level (2nd year students):	43 respondents;	all male

Total: 572 respondents; 274 (47.9%) female; 298 (52.1%) male.

Results

With respondents of such different ages, backgrounds, levels of academic ability, and types of institution, I had no intention of producing one set of results to show the preferences of the "average student." I considered that such figures would be meaningless. Consequently, I drew up tables for each of the types of institutions, differentiating respondents where possible by grade or by major.

These tables were distributed at JALT 95 and are available fromthe author.

However, the most surprising finding to emerge from this study is that there is very little difference in the elements of a good language lesson mentioned by respondents, regardless of any of the demographic or institutional variables. Students in all the groups listed above tended to mention roughly the same

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elements in roughly the same proportions.

As a result, I no longer hesitate to offer the following table (Table 2) which not only summarises all the results obtained but also offers a reasonably fair reflection of the answers given by any particular group of students surveyed. The table is followed by a list of points on which a particular sub-set of the sample did differ from the average.

Points on Which Particular Groups Varied From This General Picture:

Company class--Obviously the sample (13) was too small to draw any conclusions.
University - high level--Students in this group were particularly eager to learn practical English for discussing topical topics. First year students especially enjoyed expressing their own ideas in English.
University - mid-level--A high percentage (31.5%) of non-English major students in this group said they had never had a good English lesson.
Engineering university--In this group, students were especially enamoured of conversation lessons in which they could talk to each other.
Women's university--No obvious variation from the average.
Junior College--These students loved watching videos.
Senmongakko--Fun and games were particularly favoured by this group.
High School - high level--Third year students here liked nothing better than having a foreign teacher chat with them about life abroad.
High School - mid-level--These students set great store by clear explanations, especially of grammar points.
Junior High School - low level--Fun, games an lessons about pronunciation went down well here.

Discussion

The results tabulated above speak for themselves. A very strong pattern emerges at all the institutions surveyed: students like to learn practical English in small conversation classes taught by foreign teachers using videos in a fun atmosphere with games and explanations that are easy to understand.

It will be interesting to see, when the second part of this survey (asking a similar question to teachers) is complete, to see how far language teachers see it as their role to provide students with these things.

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Table 2 The Elements of a Good Language Lesson
Grand Summary of Elements Mentioned by More than One Respondent

Type of lesson	
Conversation	111
Listening	26
Pronunciation	29
Speaking	13
Reading	6
English literature	6
STEP/TOEFL preparation	4
Vocabulary	4
Drama	2
Content (other than English)	2
Grammar	2
Atmosphere	
Fun	89
English only	18
Relaxed	18
Chance to make friends	9
Interesting	6
English the main classroom language	5
Tense	5
Fresh	3
Friendly	2
Free	2
Slow pace	2
Breaks in lesson	2
Teacher	
Foreign	110
Entertaining	19
Knows many interesting things	4
Knows English well	3
Team-teaching	3
Speaks English	3
Knowledgeable	2
Foreign perspective	2
Corrects students' mistakes	2
Can speak Japanese	2
Beautiful	2
Clear pronunciation	2
Motivates students	2
Students	
Active	10
Have a sense of progress	6
Can get a good grade	3
Prepare well	2
Want to participate	2
Include some foreign students	2
Materials	
Video	56
Songs	18
Tape	8
Handouts (not textbook)	6
Newspapers	3
Ideas from students	3
Go beyond textbook	3
Pictures	2
Activities	
Games	51
Talk to foreign teacher	27
Talk to other students	14
Express their own ideas in English	11
Quiz	9
Groupwork	7
Discussion	7
Pairwork	6
Teacher corrects pronunciation	6
Party	5
Listen to a tape	3
Teacher explains the logic of grammar	2
Teacher asks many questions	2
Role play	2
Students talk to teacher individually	2
Students talk about themselves	2
Debate	2
Students can earn bonus points	2
Students speak a lot	2
Talk to teacher in English	2
Frequent tests	2
Lesson content	
Practical/useful English	43
Real English	33
Foreign life	30
Daily conversation	30
Pronunciation	11
Topical topics	8
Logic of English	7
Foreign teacher's experiences	5
Basic English	4
No grammar	4
Natural conversation	3
Goes beyond text itself	3
Comparison of varieties of English	2
How to study	2
Explanations	
Easy to understand	39
Simple	11
Stresses important points	4
Thorough	2
Methodical	2
Class Size	
Small	24
Other	
No preparation needed	2
Frequent lessons	2

Learning Styles of Japanese Students

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Recent growing interest in the learner-centered classroom which emphasizes the learner's needs, interests, and preferences sheds light on individual differences of the learners (e.g., Nunan, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). In the pre-course planning stage of the learner-centered curriculum, students' subjective information such as perceptual learning style preferences, grouping preferences, and preferred learning arrangement is asked through questionnaires along with biographic data such as age, proficiency level, and nationality (e.g., Nunan, 1988).

Among the subjective information, perceptual learning style preferences and grouping preferences play a key role in determining the parameters of the learner-centered curriculum because these preferences are closely related to preferred methodology. Yet, very limited research has been carried out in order to investigate learning style preferences of Japanese students.

Previous Research on Japanese Students' Learning Styles

Learning styles are defined as a general, consistent, often unconscious tendency of how students perceive, respond to, and interact with a new subject (Ellis, 1989; Guild & Garger, 1985; Keefe, 1979; Oxford, Hollaway, & Horton-Murillo, 1992).

Reid (1987) was the first researcher who investigated perceptual learning styles of ESL students. She developed a questionnaire which was aimed at identifying four perceptual learning styles: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile; and two other learning styles: individual and group.

1. Visual learners are those who learn best by seeing words in books, workbooks, and on the board, and by studying films, charts, and other visual materials. They benefit most from reading.
2. Auditory learners are those who learn best from oral explanation and from hearing words spoken. They prefer learning by listening to lectures, other students, and audio tapes.
3. Kinesthetic learners are those who learn best by getting physically involved in learning. They remember things best when they learn them through role-play, simulation, and field trips.
4. Tactile learners are those who learn best when engaged in "hands-on" learning, such as building models, making things, and doing experiments.
5. Group learners are those who learn best when they work with others. Group interaction helps them understand new materials better.
6. Individual learners are those who learn best when they work alone. They are capable of understanding new materials by themselves, and remember better what they learn when they work alone.

Although Reid succeeded in identifying learning styles of most ESL students, she failed to identify statistically significant learning styles of Japanese students because they avoided checking the survey answers, *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree* (Reid, 1990).

Similarly, Hyland (1994) conducted a survey with Japanese students in Japan as well as in New Zealand in order to investigate learning styles of Japanese students. He used not only the original English version of Reid's survey but also the Japanese translation of Reid's survey because he was afraid that the Japanese students might avoid checking the survey answers *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree*. He translated *Strongly Agree* and *Strongly Disagree* into Japanese, *tsuyoku so omou* and *tsuyoku so omowanai*, respectively, which sounded unnatural to the Japanese students. In spite of the use of Japanese in the survey, he could not identify learning styles of Japanese students either.

Problem

This research examines whether or not Japanese students have particular major learning style preferences. Furthermore, the differences of learning styles among the three groups of Japanese students are compared in order to examine the effects of the different situations they are in on their learning styles. Finally, the relationships between identified learning styles and individual variables, TOEFL scores and length of stay in the U.S. are analyzed.

Method

Research Method

A self-reporting questionnaire was used for the research.

Subjects

In total, 78 Japanese students participated in the survey: fifty undergraduate students who study at a university in Nagoya and 28 students who study at a language institute as well as regular matriculated students at an American university in both undergraduate and graduate classes. These students are further divided into three groups: (a) 40 students who study in Japan and have never studied in an English-speaking country; (b) 10 students who study in Japan and have studied in an English-speaking country for more than one year; and (c) 28 Japanese students who study at an American university.

Table 1 Learning Style Questionnaire Variable: TOEFL Scores and Length of Stay in the U.S.

Length of stay	n	TOEFL scores	n
Less than 3 months	4	400-449	2
3 to 6 months	3	450-499	4
7 to 11 months	2	500-549	14
12 to 17 months	5	550-599	5
18 months to 2 years	4		
Over 2 years	3		
Over 3 years	7		

Materials

A self-reporting survey developed by Reid (1987) was used in order to maintain validity and reliability as an instrument to measure learning styles. However, the survey was translated into Japanese for two reasons. First, some students were not proficient enough in English to understand survey questions written in English. Second, they might avoid checking survey answers such as *Strongly Agree* or *Strongly Disagree*, just as they did in Reid's (1987) questionnaire. In fact, Japanese people do not use the word, *strongly*, when they express agreement and disagreement, because it sounds too extreme and awkward. These expressions were translated into Japanese (see Appendix) so that they would indicate the same degree of agreement or disagreement as the English expressions and also sound more natural.

Statistical Analyses

Preference means for each set of variables—visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group, and individual—were calculated in order to determine learning style preferences of Japanese students. Then learning styles were further identified for each of three groups. For the students who study at the American university, the relationships between learning styles and individual variables, TOEFL scores and length of stay in the U.S., were also analyzed through analysis of variance (see Table 1).

Results and Discussion

Learning Style Preferences of Japanese Students

Contrary to Reid's (1987) survey results, Japanese students showed a variety of learning style preferences. Reid suggests that a preference mean of 13.50 or above is considered to be a major learning style preference. If the data is interpreted according to her definition, Japanese students possess, in fact, each learning style as their major one (see Figure 1). However, the data of Reid's study and this study correspond with each other in terms of the general tendency of learning styles of the students.

For example, the Japanese students in both studies have no single strong learning preference. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize learning styles of Japanese students as a group. Second, the Japanese students in both studies don't like group learning as much as the other learning styles.

Three groups.

Overall, three groups of the Japanese students showed differences of learning style preferences (see Table 2). This supported research findings (Davidman, 1981; Reid, 1987; Viteli, 1989) that adult learners seem to be able to modify and extend different learning styles depending on the situations they are in.

The students who study in Japan and have lived in an English-speaking country more than one year showed much stronger preferences for auditory, tactile, and individual learning than the other two groups. Their learning styles are close to those of American students. The most striking fact was that the students studying in the U.S. indicated that group learning was a negative learning style. In addition, they preferred individual learning more strongly than the students who studied in Japan. They may have formed a negative attitude toward group learning because they might have had difficulty in cooperating with American or multinational students in the language institute, undergraduate, or graduate classes.

Individual Variables

TOEFL Scores

The relationships between TOEFL scores and learning styles were examined with students who study at the American university. Statistical analysis revealed significant relationships between TOEFL scores and learning style preference ($p < .05$). Less auditory, less kinesthetic, and less group-oriented students appeared to get high TOEFL scores.

Hyland (1994) states that students who learn English by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) tend to show preferences for auditory, kinesthetic, and group learning. Nonetheless, the results show that the students who receive high scores in TOEFL tend to prefer auditory, kinesthetic, and group learning less than those who receive low scores. As a consequence, the results suggest that students who are taught by CLT will probably not be successful in examinations such as TOEFL, which measures students' cognitive academic language proficiency.

Length of Stay

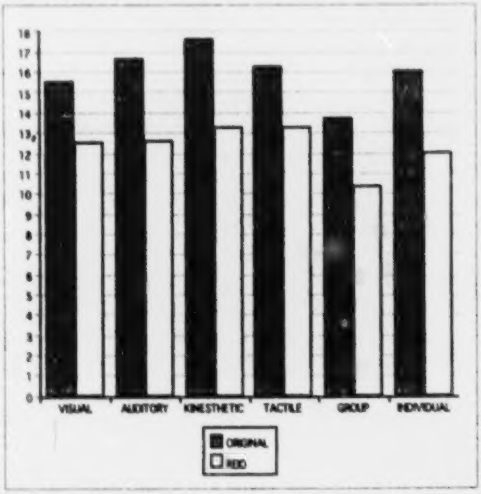
Statistical analysis demonstrated interesting trends with the students studying at the American university: The longer the students had lived in the U.S., the less they preferred kinesthetic and group learning styles, and the more they preferred the individual learning style ($p < .05$).

A strong preference for individual learning and a dislike for group learning among the students studying at the American university raise a question. In the U.S., group work is applied in university classes and in English language programs far more frequently than in Japanese classrooms. Adult learners are considered to be able to modify and extend different learning styles depending on the situations they are in (Davidman, 1981; Reid, 1987; Viteli, 1989). However, the results indicated that the Japanese students had not adjusted themselves to U.S. academic classrooms in terms of group learning. Adult learners might be able to modify and develop learning styles with respect to visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learning, but they appeared to have difficulty modifying their learning styles regarding group learning.

Conclusions and Implications for the Classroom

Japanese students showed a diversity of learning style preferences. They don't like group learning as much as visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, and individual learning. They seem to be able to modify learning styles concerning visual,

Figure 1. Comparison of learning styles of Japanese students in Reid's and this study.



auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learning styles. However, they appear to have difficulty developing individual and group learning styles. Furthermore, students who are less auditory, kinesthetic, and group-oriented tend to get high scores on the TOEFL.

Given these premises, we should consider whether or not teachers should accommodate students' learning style preferences. There are two approaches to students' learning styles which I identify as the accommodation and eclectic approaches.

Table 2 Learning Style Preferences of the Three Groups of Japanese Students

	Group A	Group B	Group C
	Mean	Mean	Mean
Visual	15.75	15.30	15.44
Auditory	16.25	18.90	16.67
Kinesthetic	17.55	18.90	17.26
Tactile	16.44	19.40	16.11
Group	15.13	15.00	11.48
Individual	15.25	16.50	17.26

Note: Reid suggests that preference means of 11.49 or less are considered to be negative learning style preference. Group A = students who study in Japan and have never lived in an English-speaking country; Group B = students who study in Japan and have lived in an English-speaking country for more than one year; Group C = students who study in the U.S.

The proponents of the accommodation approach (e.g., Carbo, 1984; Cavanaugh, 1981; Dunn, 1983; Dunn & Dunn, 1993; Hoffer, 1986; Young, 1989) assert that it is beneficial for students if teachers provide them with individualized instruction which matches the students' identified learning styles. They also argue that students show significantly better achievement and satisfaction, and improve their attitudes toward learning when taught through their preferred learning style. In addition to this, from the psychological point of view, Gregorc (1979) warns that periods of great mismatch of learning styles and teaching styles result in frustration, anger, and avoidance behavior in the students.

The proponents of the eclectic approach to students' learning styles (e.g., Davidman, 1981; Friedman & Alley, 1984; Grasha, 1984; Hunt, 1979; Hyland; 1994; Melton, 1990; Oxford et al., 1992; Reid, 1987; Smith & Renzulli, 1984) recognize that students should have an opportunity to learn through their preferred learning styles in order to experience success in academic achievement. However, they also emphasize that teachers should not accommodate individuals' learning styles on all occasions. Their arguments are based on pedagogical, psychological, and educational perspectives.

From the pedagogical view, Davidman (1981) criticizes the accommodation approach, especially the one promoted by the team of Dunn (e.g., Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1975). He claims that their approach reinforces each student's potential learning style and promotes the creation of a personalized learning environment geared to students' preferences. It undermines the principle of public education as a vehicle for creating enlightened citizens. Moreover, individualized education might result in personalized education at home where individuals learn in the perfect environment which is congruent with each individual's learning style.

From the psychological perspective, Grasha (1984) asserts that people cannot tolerate environments which match their preferred learning styles for a long time and that such environments do not necessarily result in improved performance or interest of students.

From the educational viewpoint, the proponents of the eclectic approach (e.g., Hyland, 1994; Melton, 1990; Oxford et al., 1992; Reid, 1987) claim that students can profit most from a teacher who exhibits a wide range of teaching styles and techniques rather than a teacher who has a limited repertoire, because they will have to handle all of the styles of learning in the long run. They recommend that teachers should create materials and activities that will satisfy all the learning styles of the students.

In the Japanese university classroom, which version of the learning-style-based approach would be appropriate, the accommodation or eclectic approach? The results showed diversity in Japanese students' learning style preferences. Therefore, constantly using the same teaching style that focuses on limited learning styles would probably not be effective for these particular students. Moreover, it is not feasible to provide the students, who showed a variety of combinations of learning style preferences, with personalized instruction in the university English classroom where often more than 60 students study in one class, as is generally recommended by the proponents of the accommodation approach (e.g., Cavanaugh, 1981; Dunn, 1983, 1984; Carbo, 1984; Hoffer, 1986). The data suggests that it would be most profitable for teachers to apply a variety of teaching styles and techniques and create materials and activities that will address every learning style, as the proponents of the eclectic approach suggest (e.g., Smith & Renzulli, 1984; Friedman & Alley, 1984).

Furthermore, if we take into account Japanese students' very weak preference for group learning and adopt the accommodation approach, it is clear that we cannot use group work frequently applied in the Communicative Language Teaching oriented classroom. Some researchers (Reid, 1987; Young, 1987) even suggest that we have to reconsider the recent TESL/TEFL curriculum innovations such as the communicative approach that was developed in a Western cultural context.

In the ESL/EFL classroom, students and teachers often possess mutually incompatible sets of beliefs about the nature of language and language learning (Nunan, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Teachers tend to believe that communicative activities are the most effective for fluency development, whereas adult ESL/EFL students tend to believe that traditional learning activities such as grammar exercises and rote memorization are useful for learning. Therefore, teaching styles and learning styles often conflict.

It would be better for teachers to adopt the modified eclectic learning-style-based approach. In this approach, negotiating the methodology with the students would be a solution to settle this dilemma (Davidman, 1981; Nunan, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1994). Teachers would use instruments to identify students' perceptual learning styles only as a point of departure. That is, by using the results of the instruments, teachers would have dialogs with the students about their learning styles through conferences and classroom meetings. Through these on-going dialogs or negotiations, teachers can help students explore potential alternative learning styles such as group learning to maximize learning outcomes based on the individual's needs. For example, if the students need to develop basic interpersonal communicative skills rather than cognitive academic language proficiency, teachers can gradually move from traditional learning activities to more communicative activities by explaining the value of communicative activities to the students through conferences (Nunan, 1988; Richards & Lockhart, 1994).

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Appendix
Questionnaire in Japanese

学習スタイルについてのアンケート（アメリカで勉強している学生用）

1　名前　______________

2　年齢　______________

3　性別　______________

4　日本で何年間英語をまなびましたか？　______________

5　アメリカにはどのくらい住んでいますか？　______________

6　今、どのクラスに所属していますか？ 1つをえらんで○で囲んでください。

語学学校　　大学　　大学院

7　（ア）（語学学校に所属している人のみ答えてください。）

語学学校で何か月間勉強していますか？　______________

（イ）（大学生と大学院生のみ答えてください。）

大学又は大学院で何年間勉強していますか。　______________

専攻は何ですか？　______________

8　TOEFLは受けたことがありますか？

はい　　いいえ

（はいと答えた人のみ）何点でしたか？　______________

いつ受けましたか？　______________

学習スタイルについてのアンケート（日本で勉強している学生用）

1　名前　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
2　年齢　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
3　性別　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
4　学年　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
5　専攻　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
6　日本で何年間英語をまなびましたか？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
7　英語圏に住んだことはありますか？

はい　　いいえ

（はいと答えた人のみ）

何年間住みましたか？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

どこの国ですか？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

8　TOEFLは受けたことがありますか？

はい　　いいえ

（はいと答えた人のみ）何点でしたか？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

いつ受けましたか？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿

Ozeki Japanese Questionnaire

（共通アンケート）

このアンケートは、あなたの英語の勉強の仕方について聞いています。当てはまる答えを一つ選んで○で囲んでください。答えを選ぶとき、余り深く考えず、瞬間的に答えてください。

１．先生が口頭で指示を与えてくれるとわかりやすい。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２．授業で実際に何かを練習するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

３．授業でだれかと一緒に作業をするほうがよく作業ができる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

４．グループで勉強するほうがたくさん勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

５．授業でだれかと一緒に勉強をするほうが良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

６．先生が黒板に書いたことを読むと良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

７．授業でだれかが作業の仕方を説明するのを聞くとより良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

８．授業で何かを具体的にすると、より良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

９．説明を読むより、説明を聞いたほうが良く頭に入る。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１０．説明を読むと良く覚えていられる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１１．実際に英語でモデル（ダイヤログ）などを自分で作ってみると良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１２．指示を聞くより、指示を読んだ方が良く理解できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１３．一人で勉強したほうが良く物を覚えていられる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１４．宿題のために、英語で何かを作成すると、よりたくさん勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１５．授業で何か実験しながら勉強するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１６．勉強している時に、絵、グラフ、表などを書くと良く頭に入る。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１７．先生の講義を聞くと良く覚えていられる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１８．一人で勉強したり、作業したりすると良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

１９．授業でロールプレイやスキットで役を演じると良く英語が理解できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２０．授業でだれかが英語を話すのを聞くと良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２１．クラスメートと一緒に宿題をするのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２２．習った英語で実際に文章を作ってみたり、何かをしたりするとより良く覚えていられる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２３．他の人と一緒に勉強するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２４．だれかが話すのを聞くより、同じ内容なら読んだほうが良くわかる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２５．宿題で何かを作成するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２６．学んだことに関連した作業をすると良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２７．クラスでは一人で勉強したほうが良く勉強できる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２８．自分一人で何かを作成するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

２９．講義を聞くより、教科書を読んだほうが良く学べる。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

３０．一人で勉強するのが好きだ。

ア　かなりその傾向がある　イ　その傾向がある　ウ　わからない　エ　そうでもない　エ　全く違う

日本語学習者の非言語行動の縦断的観察
ー視線・うなずきを中心としてー
A Longitudinal Study on JSL Learners' Nonverbal Behavior

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1　はじめに

外国語教育の大きな目標の一つとしてコミュニケーション能力の養成が挙げられるが、従来、非言語メッセージの重要性は忘れられがちであった。しかし、第二言語としての英語の学習者が口頭試験において、不適切な非言語行動のために実際の言語能力より低い評価を受けた例も報告されている（Neu, 1990）。コミュニケーション能力の養成を謳うならば、言語面だけではなく、「非言語能力」の養成も目指すべきであろう。

近年、うなずきや視線などを中心に、日本語での会話における非言語行動の実態を明らかにする努力が、わずかではあるがなされるようになってきた（池田1988、杉戸1989）。さらに、日本人の非言語行動を外国人の非言語行動と比較対照するもの（久保田1994、東山・フォード1982、メイナード1993）もあるが、文化的背景の異なる者が接触するとどのようなインターアクションが起こるかという異文化間コミュニケーションの立場からの研究（池田・池田1995、橋本他1993、山田1992）は非常に少ない。

日本語教育においては、非言語行動が指導項目としてとり入れられることは少なく、扱われる場合も「お辞儀」などのいわゆるマナーに属することが多い。しかし、非言語にはさまざまな側面があり、会話の相手との距離の取り方、視線の合わせ方、うなずきの頻度など、普段はっきりとは意識されにくいことこそ、異文化間コミュニケーションでは問題になるのではないだろうか。

日本語学習者が日本人と円滑にコミュニケーションをとれるようにするためには、教育に非言語的側面もとり入れるべきであろう。それにはまず日本語の会話における非言語行動の実態を明らかにする必要がある。本稿は、1）日本人同士の会話における視線やうなずきの会話進行上の機能、2）日本語学

習者と日本人の間の会話における非言語伝達行動の言語習得に伴う縦断的変化を捉えようとするものである。

2　調査の概要

2.1　対象者

日本人同士の会話：ある研修に参加中の30歳前後の教師6名（女性4、男性2）。

日本人と外国人の会話：東京外国語大学留学生日本語教育センターで、学部進学のために学習中の10か国28名（男性20、女性8）の留学生および同年代の日本人大学生9名（男性5、女性4）。（注1）留学生のうち本稿で分析の対象とするのは、男性6名（インドネシア4、モンゴル2）である。

2.2　資料収集の方法

日本人同士、留学生と日本人の会話共に、同性のペアを組み、テーブルを挟んで着席した対面状況における会話を録画した。なお、参考のため同国籍の留学生同士の母語による会話も記録した。ビデオカメラは4台使用し、前後左右から会話の様子を記録したが、カメラの圧迫感を減らすため、前後の2台は天井据え付けカメラを用いた。録画時間は15分程度で、そのうち会話開始後5分から10分までの5分間を分析の対象とした。

会話は日本語で行い、留学生と日本人の場合は自己紹介、日本留学のきっかけ、日本の生活、大学生活など、日本人同士の場合は自己紹介、研修参加の経緯、研修後の仕事などを話題として与えた。しかし、上記以外のテーマへ話が発展しても構わないこととした。

2.3　調査時期

外国人と日本人の会話資料の収集は、学習者の日本語レベルの初級後半・中級・上級にあたる1994年6月、10月、1995年2月の3回にわたって行った。会話の相手は毎回初対面となるようにした。日本人同士については、研修開始後約1週間でまだお互いにほとんど知り合っていない時期に実施した。

2.4　分析方法

まず、会話の言語部分を書き起こし、それに視線と頭の動きを加えた「言語・非言語テクスト」（表1、2参照）を作成した。（注2）テクストは、二人が同時に発話した部分はその重なりが見られるようにした。スクリプトは原則としてひらがなで書き表し、言い淀みはカタカナとした。句読点は使用しなかったが、意味がわかりにくくなる箇所にのみ「．」を用いた。二人の言語スクリプトを上下から挟み込むような態でそれぞれの話者の「視線」「うなずき」の様子が記述してある。言語部分の記述には以下の補助記号を使用した。

「？」・・・疑問文としての発話
「L」・・・笑い声
「＿」・・・はっきりとは聞き取れない部分
「X」・・・聴取不能部分
「C」・・・咳や咳払い

非言語のうち、視線に関しては、相手の目、または顔のあたりを見ているかどうかを正面と側面の両方の映像から判断し、見ている場合は「E」でマークし、見ている時間の経過は「EEE」のように記号の連続で表した。対象とした頭の動きは4種類で、以下の記号を用いた。同じ動きの繰り返し・持続は記号を連続して用いることによって表した。

「●」・・・はっきりした大きい縦振り
「・」・・・小さい縦振り
「／」・・・左右いずれかに首をかしげる
「Z」・・・首の横振り

非言語行動を言語との関連において捉えるには、何らかの道具が必要である。ここでは、分析の手がかりとして、発話を「事実の叙述や聞き手への働きかけをする発話」である「実質的な発話」と「判断、要求、質問など聞き手に積極的な働きかけもしないような発話」である「あいづち的な発話」（杉戸1987）に分類した。ただし、杉戸の定欽では「あいづち的な発話」とされている「単純な聞き返し」も相手への働きかけの機能を持つと考え、実質的発話として扱った。また、「あいづち的発話」に分類される「オーム返し」には、先行する相手の発話と全く同じではなくても内容的に同じものは含めることとした。

3　分析結果

「言語・非言語テクスト」を用い、日本人同士および外国人と日本人との間の会話における非言語の様子をそれぞれ検討した結果を以下に述べる。

3.1　日本人同士の会話

3.1.1　うなずき

「聞き手」のうなずきは「あいづち的発話」と共起しやすい。「うん」などの「ン系」のあいづち

（小宮1986）は8割、「ああ」などの「ア系」は7割の箇所でうなずきを伴う。さらに、相手の発話のポーズや「けど」「□て」「ね／ねえ」などのところでも起こりやすい。（注4）また「話し手」の立場でも、自らの発話の「けど」「□て」「ね／ねえ」などの箇所および「聞き手」のあいづちやうなずきに呼応するところでうなずくことが多い。

3.1.2　視線

視線の使い方としては、「話し手」は「実質的発話」の開始時に視線をそらすことが多く、終了時のあたりでは「聞き手」を見る率が高くなっている。「あいづち的発話」においては、開始時も終了時も相手、すなわち「話し手」の方を見ている率は8割程度と高い。「聞き手」の立場では安定して相手に視線を向け続けるが、「話し手」としては発話の進行に応じて視線を切り替える傾向が見られると言えよう。

3.2　外国人と日本人の会話

次に外国人学習者の日本語会話における言語・非言語行動の縦断的変化を見るために、ここでは一人のインドネシア人学習者の例を中心に検討する。

3.2.1　うなずき

表1は1回目の会話（初級終わり頃）、表2はその8カ月後の3回目の会話（上級の初めあたり）のテクストの一部である。2つを見比べてもわかるように、1回目では、学習者のうなずきはかなり少ない。言語的にもほとんどあいづちを打つことがなく、あいづちが見られる場合にも「uh-huh」という、日本語にはないものである場合が多く、それに伴ううなずきも、あごを持ち上げるような動きで、日本語の会話の中では違和感を感じさせるものであった。それに対して、3回目においては、あいづちが量的に増えただけではなく、定型的なあいづち詞以外にも、「話し手」の言葉を拾って繰り返したり補ったりすることによって会話の進行を促すことが多くなるなどの質的変化が見られるが、同時に「非言語のあいづち」であるうなずきも増えている。

この学習者は、第1回目の日本語会話と同じときに録画した母語による会話では、ほとんどうなずいていなかった。これは、言語の上達につれて非言語面でも巧みに日本人の会話のスタイルを習得しているケースだと言えよう。ただし、どの学習者にもこのような変化が見られたわけではなく、今回の資料からは一般化することはできない。

3.2.2　視線

3.1.2で、「あいづち的発話」においては相手に視線を送る率が高く、「実質的発話」の場合は発話開始のあたりでは視線をはずし、終了時のあたりでは視線を相手に向けていることが多いと述べたが、この傾向は、日本人と日本語で話す外国人学習者についてもあてはまる。「話し手」は「実質的発話」が終わりに近づくと視線を相手に向け、逆にそれまで「聞き手」として相手に視線を向けていた者は「実質的発話」を始めるあたりで視線をはずすが、このことは会話の進行と密接に結びついていると言えよう。

また、前述のインドネシア人学習者の場合、表1、2にも表れている通り、1回目は視線の切り替えが頻繁に見られるが、3回目は相手を見ている時間がかなり増えている。この傾向は特に「実質的発話」開始のあたりにおいて見られるが、同様の現象は他の学習者にも見られた。日本人の場合も視線を向ける割合は、相手が初級の学習者のときに最も低く、上級の学習者、日本人の順に高くなっている。これには自らのあるいは相手の言語能力の不足が影響していると思われる。何をどのように言えば相手に伝わるかを考えなければならない場合、視線を相手に向け続けるのは困難だということであろう。学習者の「あいづち的発話」時の視線も、上級に進むにつれ、相手を見る割合が高くなり、日本人と同程度になる。ここにも同じような心理的要因が働いていると考えられる。

4　まとめ

学習者の日本語の習得に伴い非言語行動がどのように変化するかを、限られた資料からではあるが、日本人同士の会話の様子と比較して検討してきた。いくつかの傾向が見られたが、さらに多くの資料を分析しそれらを検証していかなければならないと考えている。その前提としては、言語・非言語の記述方法、カウントの仕方、「実質的・あいづち的」という発話の分類法、「ターン」という考え方などを再検討していくことが必要である。しかし、それらの課題を残してはいるものの、「言語・非言語テクスト」を用いて会話を検討することにより、非言語を含めた会話進行のプロセスがかなり明らかになってきた。

今後、上記の課題に取り組みつつ資料の拡充・分析を続け、そこから得られた知見を教育の場に還元

し、学習者のコミュニケーション能力の向上につなげたいと考えている。

注

（1）留学生の国籍と人数は以下の通り：
男性：インドネシア4、カンボジア・シンガポール・タイ・ネパール・ブラジル・マレーシア・モロッコ・モンゴル各2、女性：フィリピン4、タイ・マレーシア各2

（2）「言語・非言語テクスト」には手の動きを記述する欄も設けてあるが、今回の分析の対象は「視線」と「うなずき」に限定した。

（3）聞き手のうなずきが話し手の発話中の接続の「て」や接続助詞・終助詞の現われる位置（多くの場合そこに短いポーズが入る）に頻出するというのは、メイナード(1993) が頭の動きも含めた「あいづち」を分析した結果ともほぼ一致している。

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Japanese Students' Nonverbal Responses: What They Teach Us

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> It isn't just that people "talk" to each other without the use of words, but that there is an entire universe of behavior that is unexplored, unexamined, and very much taken for granted.
>
> - Edward T. Hall (1990, p. vii)[1]

Context: A Description of the Teaching Context

I have been teaching English in Japan for over twelve years. In all that time, the issue which has never failed to interest and challenge me as a North American teacher is what happens when I ask students questions. Sometimes, answers are forthcoming and the class proceeds. However, there are other times when nothing seems to happen. My questions are met with silence. What are students thinking? What should I do? Will my responses to their silence help or hinder their attempts to answer? By systematically observing, interpreting, and evaluating what was happening in one of my classes, I hoped to understand what students in Japan are thinking and feeling when silent.

The first year high school students in this study were interested in supplementing their regular English studies at school with further practice in speaking and listening outside of school. A special class was held once a week in the evening. There were nine students, two boys and seven girls. Seven of the nine attend one of the two top academic schools in the city. I would describe the overall class level as pre-intermediate in terms of knowledge of English.

I became interested in learning more about this particular class because it was the least verbally responsive of all my classes. They did not easily speak out in class even though improving their *conversational* skill was their stated reason for attending. I wanted to find out why they hesitated to speak and learn how to move them towards their goal of being able to speak more.

Questions: Focusing on What I Want to Know

While students did express a range of responses both verbal and nonverbal, I focused on the nonverbal responses because they tend to be overlooked in favor of the verbal responses. Furthermore, nonverbal responses were more abundant and more consistently expressed and displayed than verbal responses in this group of students. Even the quietest student was quite animated nonverbally with gestures, facial expressions, and active avoidance of eye contact. This observation is supported by Reinelt (1987) whose series of drawings portray a Japanese student's nonverbal actions when asked a question by a non-Japanese teacher.

I wanted to know: (a) *What nonverbal responses do Japanese students make (when the foreign teacher asks a question)?; and (b) what do these responses mean?* Like Reinelt (1987), I believe that examining what happens during this silence (and why) can "increase the understanding on the part of the non-Japanese teacher " (p.4).

Data Collection and Method - Addressing the Question

Following the description of triangulation in classroom research as given in van Lier (1988), I decided to use three data sources: video, interviews, and a journal. A video of teacher-student interactions during class would serve as the central data source. Interviews with other teachers, adult students, and the students in this study would be conducted focusing on what these informants noticed about the students' nonverbal responses on video. Finally, I would write regularly in a journal about the inquiry process as new concerns, insights, and questions evolved.

I began by videotaping the class for four consecutive lessons. Then from the nearly four hours of raw footage, I selected representative interactions between each student and myself. There were six scenes lasting from one to three minutes each, for a total of 15 minutes.

I interviewed seven of my adult Japanese students, seven Japanese English teachers, and one Canadian English teacher. In the first round of interviews, I opened each interview by setting the situation: A teacher has asked a student a question, but the student is silent. Then I always asked the same series of questions: (a) What do you imagine the student is thinking?; (b) What are other possibilities?; and (c) What do you think the student would do nonverbally in each case mentioned above? From this point, the interviews became more open-ended. I jotted down the ideas being generated in order to clarify and stimulate thinking for both of us about possible reasons and meanings behind the actions. I concluded each interview by asking: *What nonverbal responses do Japanese students make and what do these responses mean?*

I conducted a second round of interviews with the same informants, showed them the 15-minute edited class video, and asked them what they noticed. This time, I prepared a viewing guide to help them organize their comments. There were three headings: nonverbal actions, meaning, and effectiveness to convey meaning. They could write in Japanese or English. What we lost in spontaneity, we gained in the thoughtfulness of their remarks. One informant wrote, "(The student in the video) looks at other things, not your eyes. She thinks and thinks what to say in English. She understands what you say, but she thinks how to say (it) in English."[2]

In addition to the class video and the interviews, I kept a journal on the inquiry process. Based on the descriptions of the use of diaries in teacher education in Bailey (1990), and Cochran-Smith and Lytle (1993), I kept a reflective account of what I was learning about my question and how to get more information about it through the data sources. I tried to make reflective analysis a regular follow-up to data collection. After one interview, I wrote, "What I learned from (Mr.) Miyazaki is students are trying to avoid confrontation with the teacher when they can't respond well. If they can respond, behavior is clear, direct, and active."[3]

In a final attempt to learn more about what others are seeing, I showed the video to the students who appeared in it. I met individually with each student. Before, during, and after viewing the video, they filled out a viewing guide about body language and related meanings (see Appendix 1).

Next, I showed them the video scenes again and froze the frame whenever there was a nonverbal action I wanted them to talk about. I would ask, "What were you thinking about at that moment?" and primarily spoke in English while students responded in Japanese.

Findings and Implications: What Do They Mean?

From the data, I compiled a list of 40 ways in which students expressed themselves nonverbally. Out of this list, six basic categories emerged: (a) direction which eyes are looking; (b) touching face or hair; (c) coordinated hand movement; (d) torso movement; (e) head movement; and (f) miscellaneous, as there were variations. For example, in the category of eye contact, they looked down in front of themselves, looked away and down, looked away and up, looked at their friend(s), looked at me, and looked at their book or notebook (see appendices).

Though producing a list of nonverbal actions appeared to answer the first part of my question, thinking beyond the observation and description of actions revealed the complexity of attempting to answer the second part of the question, "What do specific actions mean?" Here the answers were much less clear. Informants and I were skeptical about the accuracy and value of neatly assigning concise and uniform meaning to each action because such simplification did not account for individual differences or the full context of the situation. For example, I found out that smiling for one student meant "I have finished the assignment" while it meant "I don't understand the question" for another, and "I don't want to try any more" for a third.

Hall (1976) expresses similar doubts. He believes the popularization of reading people's body language in the 70s is "doomed to failure"(p. 82). Efforts to attach specific meaning to parts of nonverbal actions do not sufficiently account for the context. However, he goes on to say,

> In any encounter, particularly intercultural or interethnic, the correct reading of the other person's verbal and nonverbal behavior is basic to transactions at all levels. In fact, the correct reading of all sensory inputs and their integration into a coherent picture is one of the most important things we do. (1976, pp. 81-82)

Well aware of the dangers of looking for highly specific meanings in students' nonverbal responses on one hand, yet on the other feeling a critical need to understand, accept, and work with their reality of the silence, I looked at the meanings of students' actions in the data. There were basic six meanings: (a) Doesn't understand the question; (b) Doesn't know the answer; (c) Doesn't know how to say the answer in English; (d) Feels nervous; (e).Feels embarrassed; and (f) Is thinking.

In order to set the meanings closer to the context in which they were perceived by the informants, I regrouped the six meanings into three broad categories based on Japanese words spoken in the interviews:1) *Wakaranai* which literally means "I don't know/understand." This category included (a), (b), and (c) above. 2) *Agaru* which includes feelings of distress, tension, and discomfort. It consisted of (d) and (e). 3) *Kangae chu* which literally means "in the middle of thinking" represented (f).

During the interviews, I had asked the informants to write down first descriptions and then meanings of the students' actions. Now, I looked at how the informants had matched action and meaning. For the category *wakaranai*, the three most frequently mentioned nonverbal actions (with the first action listed as being noticed the most) were looks away from the teacher, touches face, and looks directly at the teacher. As for *agaru*, touches hair or on side of head, plays with hands, and touches face were noticed. Looks away from the teacher, looks up, and looks down were thought to show *kangae chu*. Overlaps appeared in the results in two cases. One action is mentioned under two categories of meanings. Looks away from the teacher is found in the categories of *wakaranai* and *kangae chu*. Touches face appears in both *wakaranai* and *agaru*.

Though these overlaps reminded me that it is too simplistic and even misleading to claim there are clear and consistent one to one relationships between specific actions and meanings, I see two possibilities for classroom application. First, the results above show that use of hands and eye direction were the most noticeable features. A teacher could look for these two actions by students in order to get an idea what the student is thinking. Second, the most commonly mentioned action under each category of meaning (the first action listed under each category) suggests that one action could be expressing a problem of language, emotions, or time. Of course, the reason(s) a student is silent may be any combination and degree of the above, in addition to other factors inside and outside the classroom. However, considering key actions could represent basic problem areas.

A Change in Classroom Practice: An Application

Before this study, I tended to wait for students' answers about the same amount of time without considering that students' nonverbal actions were also responses and could be clues as to their readiness to speak. I was treating all cases of student silence in the same way, simply waiting. As a result of this study, I am now making distinctions among the students' nonverbal responses when they are silent according to characteristic actions under the three categories of meanings, *wakaranai, agaru*, and *kangae chu*. My hope is the understanding of specific commonly occurring nonverbal actions by students will generate alternative courses of actions to help students and teachers bridge the silence.

My assumption is that reading students' nonverbal responses helps me understand their situation and thus enables me to provide the kind of support they need. The findings described above can be applied to a three-part teaching decision-making process of observation, interpretation, and response. For example, if I notice the student is making considerable efforts to avoid eye contact with me, I will think he/she is having trouble either understanding the question or forming an answer. In other words, the student wants to say, "*wakaranai.*" My response will be to give some kind of language support such as repetition of the question or explanation of vocabulary. In another situation, if the main nonverbal response I see is hand movement, such as fidgeting or touching hair or on side of head, I will respond in a manner appropriate to a student under stress. I will give emotional support through verbal and nonverbal signs of encouragement like saying with a smile, "You can do it." In a third case in which the student looks away and possibly up very calmly as opposed to the clear intention of eye contact avoidance of *wakaranai*, I will think *kangae chu*. Probably, the student mainly needs more time to either understand the question, form an answer, or both. I will wait a little longer for an answer. So now, instead of one course of teaching action or response to a student's silence (i.e., waiting), I now have three possible responses, my former all-purpose way and two alternatives (see Appendix 2).

A Final Question: What About the Students?

A final question remains to be addressed. Do the students have a greater understanding of how to be more verbally responsive as a result of participating in this study? In recent classes, I have noticed a change in their general response style. When I ask them questions now, they appear to be quicker to respond verbally while also trying to make eye contact with me. There seems to be a conscious attempt by students to give me a coordinated verbal and nonverbal response. Even when they do not understand my question, they make a greater effort to say something like "I beg your pardon?" I believe students' experience of collaborating with me, seeing themselves on video, and answering reflective questions is changing their attitude about the role of silence, nonverbal responses, and verbal responses in teacher-student conversations.

When recently asked about the relative importance of verbal and nonverbal responses in communication, one student wrote, "I can not express myself only by words, but others can not know what I am thinking without my words."[4] This idea represents the students' general conclusion. Although there is an important role played by nonverbal actions, in the end they need to express themselves verbally through words. By looking closer at the nonverbal responses which occur in the classroom, students and teachers together may reach a new level of awareness and understanding of how to communicate with each other.

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Notes

1. Hall (1990) reflects in this third edition's introduction about how the need for cross-cultural understanding through insightful observation has not diminished since *The Silent Language* was originally published in 1959.

"We must also accustom ourselves to the fact that messages on the word level can mean one thing and that sometimes something quite different is being communicated on another level. Thirty years is not enough time to make these points; certainly much more time is needed before all their implications are realized" (p.viii).

2. Mizuho Michimachi, a colleague, wrote this comment (Oct. 1994) while watching the class video. First she described the action the student was making and then imagined what she was thinking.

3. Yuji Miyazaki, a colleague, is giving me a concluding comment during our interview (Nov. 1994) based on what he had just seen in the class video and how it was related to his own observations in his classroom.

4. Hiroko Shintani (pseudonym), then a first year high school, was responding to the question: "Which is more important for good communication in English between you and your teacher, speaking, body language, or both? Why?" (Jan. 1995). This reflective writing task took place a month after the data collection including interviews with students.

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Appendix 1: Questions

*Note- *The questions on the original three-page form were written in both English and Japanese. Students were asked to write their answers in Japanese. They took three classes to complete all the questions, watch the video individually, and do the interview. Later, the answers were translated into English.*

Part I. Questions before viewing the video

1. What body language, gestures, and eye contact do you make when Ian asks you a question? (Try to give three examples.)

2. What do they mean? (The actions described above.)

3. Do you think Ian understands your meaning (of the actions described above)? Why?

Part II. Questions during video viewing

1. What body language, gestures, and eye contact did you use when Ian asked you questions that you did not immediately say an answer? (Try to give three examples.)

2. What were you thinking and feeling when you were making the actions (written above)?

3. Please speak to Ian in Japanese and explain to him what you were thinking and feeling when the action on video is frozen. (This was the interview question.)

Part III. Questions after viewing the video and the interview

1. When you don't understand Ian's questions, what body language, gestures, and eye contact do you use? (Try to give three examples.)

2. When you understand the question, but need more time to answer in English? (Three examples.)

3. When you understand the question and you know how to answer in English, but you feel too nervous, embarrassed, or shy to speak out the answer? (Three examples.)

Appendix 2: Summary Chart of Observation, Interpretation, and Response

Student's Nonverbal Action Observed	Interpretation of Category of Meaning	Potential Response by Teacher
Looks away Touches face Looks directly at teacher	*Wakaranai:* Doesn't understand question, know answer, or how to say in English	Language Support--Repeat or paraphrase the question. Explain difficult words
Touches hair or head Plays with hands Touches face	*Agaru:* Tension increases Feels shy/nervous/embarrassed	Emotional Support--Give encouraging words and stay calm
Looks away Looks up Looks down	*Kangae chu:* Thinking about question/answer/what to do	Time Support--Wait a little longer before taking action

Language, Social Meaning, and Social Change: The Challenge for Teachers

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Introduction

Linguistic form and social meaning are inseparable. Contemporary linguists who have contributed to our understanding of language as social behavior include Michael Halliday with his representation of meaning potential and the elaboration of functional grammar and Dell Hymes with his notion of communicative competence. Both theorists have contributed remarkable insight into the business of language and language use, insight that is vital to understanding the process of language learning.

With these theoretical constructs as backdrop, I have chosen to focus on teachers, both past and present, and the challenge not only of language, communication, and social meaning, but the challenge of social change. In choosing to focus on teachers, I acknowledge a lifelong engagement with teaching. A researcher who has remained at heart a teacher, I feel almost daily the pull between wanting to teach and wanting to learn. No matter how long one has been teaching, there remains much to learn. We live in a time of accelerating change, on the world front, on the national front, on the home front. Roles and identities are no sooner asserted than they are questioned, reexamined. Fresh perspectives and changing worldviews bring new understanding. All the more in a world of change, teachers are challenged to remain learners.

My focus on teachers serves also to reaffirm the essential link between linguistics and education. Linguistics has to do with language and with language awareness. Language awareness includes recognition of linguistic resources and an understanding of how language is used to negotiate and create meaning. Language awareness includes recognition of the forms and manner of discourse and an understanding of language power. Language awareness also includes recognition of language rights in a multicultural, multilingual society.

Language is not simply a means of communication. Language *is* communication. And communication both determines and is determined by social meaning. Social meaning is shared meaning, community meaning. Social meaning thus mirrors social change. Societies change. Meanings change. Language, then, is culture in motion, a system of meanings that at once responds to and influences social change.

Contemporary multidisciplinary perspectives on language use, and richer description of language use by learners--at home, in the community, and in the classroom--bring with them new insights into language learning. Language learning is seen to be inseparable from socialization. In learning how to mean, one is learning to take one's place in society. Where there are options, there may be uncertainty and conflict regarding roles and expectations. Social change, community change, comes not without controversy. By definition, socialization in a community with a goal of democracy includes the ability to understand and participate in social change.

The challenge for teachers is thus dual: to remain a learner, attentive to social change, and at the same time enable others to more effectively interpret and participate in that change.

Language

Asked to describe what language is, teachers might well begin with words such as lexicon, phonology, and syntax. Or they might use lay terms--vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar. For centuries, *language teaching* in academic settings has been synonymous with *grammar teaching*. The focus of language classrooms and materials around the world, grammar study remains for many synonymous with language study.

This kind of language teaching is what many who are second or foreign language teachers often do best. A long and rich tradition of grammar teaching as language teaching sustains today the centrality of grammatical analysis in most language teacher education programs. Teachers typically take satisfaction in illustrating and explaining points of grammar and engaging learners in exercises and drills to test their understanding. Where learners have a native or first language in common, translation in some form or another remains a familiar and favored activity.

Viewed within the historical context of academic language teaching, this emphasis on grammatical analysis is anything but surprising. In the West, the most prestigious if not the only languages taught in schools for many centuries were Greek and Latin. Study of these classical languages was valued in particular for the analytical skills such study was presumed to develop, not unlike the skills or muscles developed by a ballerina at the barre. In addition, the translation of ancient texts provided learners with models of moral and artistic merit. When modern languages were finally accepted into European and U. S. public school curricula, teachers eager to assert standards and rigor took care to teach French, German, and English on the pattern of grammar analysis and translation followed by their colleagues in Greek and Latin. Nonetheless, modern language study was held in low esteem. In the U.S., French was considered a suitable diversion for young ladies, along with dance and embroidery, while their brothers went to school and studied the classics. In England, when French and other modern language degree programs were established at Cambridge and Oxford at the end of the 19th century, they were considered "soft options." The quest for respectability served to squelch reform efforts to teach the spoken language, and philology took its place.

In an interesting account of this period in England, Howatt (1984) notes that the success of women students in modern language programs, in particular, was not without consequence. In reaction, philology soon became a favored focus for men students and assumed a position of prestige and favor. Parallel developments in the U. S. and other countries, both Western and non-Western, help to explain prevailing patterns of power and prestige. Such historical perspective is helpful in understanding the opposition often encountered today by those who seek curricular reforms, reforms that challenge the canon of literary texts, promote the study of contemporary language varieties and language policy, and reflect up-to-date second language acquisition theory in their instructional programs.

Communication

Increasingly, contemporary discussion of language teaching goes beyond grammar to include reference to communication. And there is likely to be some emphasis on learner involvement. Favored teaching methods today are said to be interactive, to involve the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning. As the Western world emerged from the 1960s, a decade marked with student protest and demands for relevance, increased learner participation seemed both reasonable and possible. Learner interest also lent support to a new emphasis on oral communication. Communicative approaches were further bolstered by second language acquisition research findings that affirmed the role of exploration and error in the development of communicative competence.

We congratulate ourselves today on seeing language as communication, on adopting a perspective that considers roles and range in both written and spoken discourse. However, we should not so simplify history that we fail to acknowledge the recurring theme of communication in centuries past. Comenius, a 17th century European educator and philosopher well known in the history of language teaching, is often cited for his objection to the method of language teaching that had resulted from the teaching of skills of grammatical analysis in the Middle Ages. The preoccupation with grammatical analysis had grown so that by the Renaissance it was viewed as a method for actually teaching the language. In his words, "Youngsters are held captive for years, overcome with an infinite number of grammar rules--long, entangled, obscure, and generally useless." He continues:

> The first immutable law of teaching is that form and meaning in language should always go together and that learners should express in words only those things they understand. . . . He who speaks without understanding chatters like a parrot in a cage. (1665)

In the nineteenth century, proponents of the Natural Method — language learning through language use — would rediscover Comenius. Proponents of the Natural Method spurned both phonetic and grammatical analysis. They also rejected translation, which by the end of the eighteenth century had become the basis of language teaching. Denying that explanation was a necessary part of teaching, they claimed that learners should be allowed to discover for themselves how to function in their new language. The following words were written in 1870 by N. M. Petersen:

> With respect to method, the artificial one must be given up and a more natural one must take its place. According to the artificial method, the first thing done is to hand the boy a grammar and cram it into him piece by piece, for everything is in pieces; he is filled with paradigms which have no connection with each other or with anything else in the world. . . . On the other hand, the natural method of learning languages is by practice. That is the way one's native language is acquired. (Petersen, 1870, pp. 297-298)

Thirty-four years later, the Danish linguist Otto Jespersen would cite these words and conclude: "It is now half a century ago since N.M. Petersen uttered these golden words, and still the old grammar-instruction lives and flourishes with its rigmaroles and rules and exceptions" (1904, p. 111). "Language is not an end in itself," he wrote, "it is a way of connection between souls, a means of communication" (1904, p. 4).

Today, of course, many of the methods and texts that claim to be communicative fall short of what Jespersen had in mind. Structurally-focused materials said to promote "mastery" are often concerned more with form than with "communication between souls." So-called "communication practice drills" are identified in materials that remain little changed from their audiolingual days. And grammar instruction lives and flourishes with reassertion of concern for "accuracy," where the "ideal native speaker" is said to set the norm.

Interestingly, research in second language acquisition itself has served to sustain the supremacy of the sentence. The emphasis on morphosyntactic features characteristic of most SLA research has eclipsed thoughtful attention to less quantifiable but more communicative values of language learning. In foreign language teaching in the U. S. we used to speak of cross-cultural awareness. Exchange programs and study abroad were valued for their contribution to international understanding. Literary competence was considered a reward of language study. Today in our professional journals and conferences, these broader, more humanistic perspectives are often missing. In their place, are reports of studies with conflicting findings having to do with "input," "corrective feedback," and learner "acquisition." The very use of the term acquisition suggests that language is something static, to be acquired, as opposed to a way of meaning that must be learned.

The conviction that study of the acquisition of selected morphosyntactic features will lead to discovery of the "best" classroom teaching method is reminiscent of the initial enthusiasm in the 1960s for computer aided instruction. New computer technology was seen to make possible the ideal language learning program. Research money and many, many hours of effort went in to defining a sequence of morphosyntactic development and designing programs based on learner error analysis and behaviorist principles of learning. The efforts have since been abandoned. In the meantime, however, language learners around the world continued to go about the business of learning, often in idiosyncratic and highly successful ways, both inside and outside the classroom. For a majority of the successful learners, bilingualism is the norm.

Social Meaning

If communication has been a recurrent theme in language teaching, social meaning, on the other hand, adds new dimension. Social meaning as a theoretical construct has been much discussed. However, the relation of the construct to issues of educability and educational systems awaits elaboration and action. There has been talk of language and education, but there has been little exploitation of the construct of social meaning in teacher education, curriculum, and teaching materials. In a world of diversity and change, a curriculum designed for a monolingual, monocultural society takes on new social meaning. The unprecedented spread of English language learning and teaching throughout the world challenges programs, materials, and language assessment. Inclusion of social meaning in discussions of language teaching inevitably raises issues of standards, norms, appropriacy. Whose manner of expression is held to be the norm? How mutual is mutual intelligibility? Whose interpretations are said to set the standard? In a world of multicultural challenge and changing perspectives, normative education and universal schooling have met head on.

Within the U.S., where the language taught is other than English, cultural or cross-cultural competence remains an incidental goal. Despite the contributions to language as culture theory of Michael Halliday and Dell Hymes, the U.S. FL profession has continued to treat culture as a "fifth skill," following and seemingly distinct from so-called "language skills" of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Language textbooks, test formats, and teacher manuals all reflect this view. Maintenance of a structurally driven discrete point tradition in language teaching requires an adjustment in any representation of communication as both variable and embedded in social context. Formulaic, simplified texts continue to stand as "context" for the presentation of grammatical forms. Social meaning is absent. In contrast, the teaching of English as a second language within the U.S. assumes learner acculturation. From the beginning of instruction, texts offer examples of American ways of expressing and interpreting meaning. These ways are presented as models appropriate for learners to follow. The contexts represented may provide indication of the anticipated social roles to be played by the nonnative learner.

Language assessment measures have long played a major role in shaping program and materials design. Examinations are a key tool in social policy. In the West, from the time Napoleon first used national examinations to select civil servants, examinations have been used to define social values. The content, format, and evaluation of such examinations have been the responsibility of a self-ordained group of judges with an understandable interest in self preservation. By the mid-nineteenth century, a system of public examinations controlled by the universities was well established. Howatt describes the impact on secondary school language curricula in England:

> The "washback effect" of these examinations had the inevitable result of determining both the content of the language teaching syllabus and the methodological principles of the teachers responsible for preparing children to take them. Though public examinations did not create the grammar-translation method, they fixed its priorities. (1984, p. 133)

A similar phenomenon occurred in the U.S. with the widespread post-World War II application of psychometric theory to language testing. A concern with "objective," "scientific" measurement of language proficiency began to grow in the 1950s and on into the 1960s, a decade aptly described as the "golden age" of standardized test development. Under contracts from the U.S. Office of Education, two major standardized test batteries were developed: the *MLA Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students* and the *MLA Cooperative Foreign Language Tests*. Never since has there been such a large-scale effort to establish norms for language study in American schools.

It was during this same period that the *Test of English as a Foreign Language* (TOEFL) was launched. Developed to test the English proficiency of foreign students applying for admission to U.S. colleges and universities, the program was initially funded with grants from government and private agencies and attached administratively to the MLA. In 1965, ETS assumed responsibility for program operation, and its offices were moved to Princeton, New Jersey.

The TOEFL and MLA language tests have served not only to evaluate learners and programs, but to shape language programs and materials around the world. Alas, in making claims of objectivity and promoting standardization, they ignore all that Halliday and Hymes have shown us about the multidimensional, context embedded, social nature of language. Interpreting texts from multiple perspectives reveals ambiguity, underscores the negotiative nature of communication. Language skills are social skills, whatever the context of situation. Interpretation and self-expression involve reflection on that context. Recognition of language varieties and of the rights of language communities to identify and affirm their own needs and norms is an affirmation of social meaning. On the other hand, language tests that fail to represent the contextualized, negotiative nature of communication cannot be said to encourage such affirmation.

When considering social meaning, teachers must also consider the issue of appropriacy in their own classroom style. Local norms offer considerable variety in this respect. Teachers may be mentors, coaches, and even friends for learners. They often are also task masters and judges. Teachers need to understand their options; and they need to see their role as dependent as much on the learners' expectations and interpretation as on their own intent. Roles are negotiated.

Novice teachers sometimes learn this lesson the hard way. In her novel, *China Men*, Maxine Hong Kingston (1989) tells the story of a lesson gone awry. Baba, a young teacher in rural China, has a love and respect for language and for literature. A conscientious and demanding teacher, he is eager to share his joy with the boys in his charge.

> At mid-afternoon, he told the students that they had been working so hard, he would treat them: he'd give them the first line of a couplet, and they could finish it almost any way they pleased. He read many examples in order to inspire them. But boredom drained their eyes. The word poetry had hit them like a mallet stunning cattle. . . . He pressed onward. . . ."Now I'll give you a first line that established the season and place," he said. "You find the second line. You can write about an animal, a plant, a battle strategy, the climate, a cloud. . . "
>
> "I don't get it." "We don't understand you." "You don't explain clearly."
>
> "Take a guess," he suggested. "Taking a guess is the same as making up a story."
>
> "That doesn't make sense." "We don't understand." "You're making things up because you don't know the answers.". . . . .
>
> "Explain," said the students.
>
> The boys spoke in the brute vulgate, and he saw that he had made a bad mistake translating literature into the common speech. The students had lost respect for him; if he were so smart, he would not speak like them. Scorn curled their lips and lifted their eyebrows. "Explain," they demanded without standing up for recognition. (Kingston 1989, pp. 36-37)

Classroom style and manner of teaching hold social meaning. Negotiation of that meaning is an ongoing, dynamic process. Tradition and the expectations of the participants influence the nature of the negotiation. Inexperienced and idealistic, Baba sought to engage his learners, to impart to them his love of language by speaking to them in the way they spoke to one another. Instead, he had lost them. They no longer respected him as their teacher.

As they face a classroom of learners, teachers must ask themselves *Whose* norms hold ? *Whose* culture? and for *What*? What message does the textbook send about the value and purpose of language study? What does the curriculum say about social values, about how the members of a society see themselves and see others? In addressing these questions of social meaning, teachers confront issues of social change.

Social Change

Every society has rules for participation in social events. And these rules shape language development, social identity, and self-expression. Language also serves to identify and challenge established social rules. Michael Halliday has defined meaning potential as the range of variation available to the speaker. A linguistic act is not only a use of the potential of the language system. A linguistic act is a social and cultural act, an expression of who we are and what we value (Halliday, 1977). Language experience provides options, expands the range of what a speakers can do, of what they can mean. Hegemony comes at the expense of diversity. Options are narrowed, choice is restricted.

Where the communicative competence defined by Dell Hymes is a goal for language learners, the focus is on learner meaning and learner empowerment. Language learning is viewed in a context of social development. The communicative perspective of my own research interests in language learning, and the language as culture approach I have followed in curriculum design and teaching (Savignon, 1972; 1983) have reflected my early educational interests in social and political science. If I had not been born a girl, these same interests may not have led me to language teaching. Inasmuch as my experience is illustrative of social change, let me explain.

My elementary and secondary school years were spent in a laboratory school on the campus of what was then called the Illinois State Normal University. Our teachers were a select group, teachers of teachers. Many of them were women. Student initiative was encouraged, and we enjoyed library, audio-visual, and other resources beyond those available in most public schools at the time. My program of studies included math, science, literature, Latin,-French, history, and home economics. Freshman girls were required to learn how to make a dirndl skirt and eggs à la goldenrod. Only college-bound senior boys enrolled in physics. My mother was a wife and homemaker. Showing a proper mother's concern for the social success of her tall, adolescent daughter with clear intellectual interests, she cautioned, "Don't speak up in class or the boys won't like you."

Things went well. I didn't speak up too much and my steady boyfriend was the captain of the basketball team. But I did end up the class valedictorian. My classmate Steve was salutatorian. Miss Stroud, our senior class advisor, planned our commencement program. Sandra would speak of the past, our rich literary and artistic heritage. Steve would look to the future, science and adventure in the years ahead.

My college major was social studies. French was always an easy subject and I went on to develop my ability through a year of study in Grenoble. My dream was a career in foreign diplomacy. My father encouraged me to seek a teaching certificate, "always a good insurance policy for a woman," he reasoned. I followed the rules and was engaged to be married in June after my graduation.

That I went on to do graduate studies was in no way a reflection of any professional expectations or ambitions. I had never even seen a woman college professor, much less aspired to be one. The encouragement of my academic advisor along with a Woodrow Wilson Fellowship framed my future in ways I could not have imagined. Launched on a program of philology and literary criticism, the only graduate option then available in French, but still holding to my socio-political interests, I sought to include a minor in political science. "No way," said the professor who had given me an A in his upper division course in American political analysis. "I don't accept women graduate students." So it happened that I chose a minor in linguistics. My good fortune was that Illinois had one of the best linguistics programs in the U.S. My first professor, Kenneth Hale, initiated me in the analysis of Papago field data. Eventually I would forsake French literary studies for psycholinguistics and second language acquisition.

I recount this story because it is mine, and because it colors my interpretation of the world and helps to define what I can mean, how I can mean. Language learning is embedded in socialization. Important contributions to the analysis of gender differences in language use by Elinor Ochs, Deborah Tannen, Cheris Kramarae, and others have helped me to understand how, as a woman, I have come to interpret, express, and negotiate meaning as I do. Through the insights they have provided, I have come to see more clearly cultural differences in style for what they sometimes are--differences not in intent but in means of expression. Differences in style and manner of expression are OK. Even in professional settings--the classroom, committee meetings, and conferences--I can be myself and not feel I should try to be one of the boys. It also helps to have a few more women colleagues with whom to exchange experiences, and I am pleased when I see women assume roles traditionally assigned to men, for example, as heads of academic units and plenary speakers at professional meetings.

I have also come to better understand power asymmetry and self-disenfranchisement. Not all participants in negotiation are equal, and assertion of rights comes more easily to those in positions of power. Dominant groups have an advantage in working out meanings with which they are comfortable. Recognition of established differences in socialization brings with it a sense of place, along with a better appreciation of what is needed to promote change. And having known how it feels to be shut out, to have a voice muffled, if not silenced, I am better able to understand the feelings of others who seek self-expression, affirmation of self-worth.

Ours is a time of marked social change. In our communities, in our workplaces, and in our schools, diminishing resources and shifting ethnic, racial, and linguistic balance bring a growing sense of inequity and disarray. In the U.S., businessmen blame the Japanese for a stalled economy, politicians increasingly cite the poor, a disproportionate number of them black or Hispanic, as a drain on the national coffers, and a powerful and articulate lobby is demanding that English be declared the national language. As cultural and linguistic values are argued, incidents of cultural, ethnic, racial, and sexual violence increase. Ours is a time of change, marked by anxiety and struggle. We move through zones of uncertainty. Whose cultures will survive? What literature will remain? However imperfectly, can we learn to listen to the voice of the other? Can we find peace in pluralism?

Conclusion

The challenge to teachers is clear. For so long as there have been languages, there have been language learners. And for so long as there have been learners of language, there have been teachers of language. Whether they are children or adults, whether the language they are learning is their first, second, or third, learners need teachers. The best teachers provide a model for learners. They engage and guide them in their efforts at self expression. Teachers interpret and respond to learners. They know and understand learner limitations. Above all, good teachers challenge learners.

Language is communication, communication rich with social meaning. Program development, teacher education, and program evaluation should begin with an understanding of language as communication, language as culture. The communicative ability important for participation in academic, professional, and social settings comes with practice, practice along with critical and self-critical analysis of language use. Talking about communication involves talking about grammar, yes, and more. Knowledge of language includes knowledge of grammar, syntax, vocabulary, modes of discourse, print and nonprint genres, and rhetorical strategies, the use of language to influence others. Learner metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness begins with awareness of self and of the ways in which one can mean.

There are linguistic rules and there are social rules. Language and language learning are also powerful forces for social change, for breaking rules. In a time of social conflict and disputed values, teachers are challenged to challenge learners to look, to discover, and to reflect. With the ability to interpret the context in which they find themselves, and the courage to express their own meanings, they will be better able to take their place in a multilingual, multicultural world of diversity.

At the same time, language teachers are challenged to speak their own truths, express their own meanings. We come to teaching with our own life experiences, our own goals, our own interpretations. Together we share a commitment to reflection and negotiation. We are teachers because we believe in enabling, in empowering those who will shape the future. As language teachers who understand communication, we are challenged not only to learn and to enable others. We are also challenged to take an active role in the government of our society and nations. We are challenged to identify those who hold power and endeavor to influence them in an enlightened and politically sophisticated way. Education for responsible world citizenship is the solution to our most pressing human problems. The language teaching profession must exert leadership in our global society, not only in the teaching of language and education in general, but also as good citizens in a changing and globally interdependent world.

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Section Five

Bilingualism and Children

The Nurture and Nature of Bilingual Acquisition

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This paper focuses on the development of bilingualism, moving from broad analysis based on neurobiological and environmental factors that affect the acquisition of two languages to the specifics of a single individual case study. Photographic images taken inside brains of subjects engaged in language activity provide implications for educators on language acquisition from a neurobiological point of view. Then, an analysis is made of environmental factors affecting bilingualism as surveyed through a group of 29 subjects from 17 bilingual families. Finally, a single detailed case study of a developing bilingual child acquiring syntax of Chinese and Japanese simultaneously is examined in detail.

Implications of Neurobiology for Bilingual Acquisition

Language communication transpires as cells are energized via biochemical interchanges and transmissions of electrochemical energy, relegating language as physiological phenomenon. Use of Positron Emission Tomography (PET) scans which superimpose images onto Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRIs) has made it possible to comprehend how and where language information is processed in the brain. Superimposition of the changes in blood flow from generalized structures in the brain onto exact anatomical maps that are subject-specific, has enabled researchers to objectify language generation (Silva, 1995). Its primary focus has enabled researchers to better understand how a second language is acquired and the variables that impact on the nature of that acquisition.

Bilingual acquisition can be engineered and significantly enhanced if the subject's primary care givers manipulate the factors which tend to improve memory—the introduction and use of multisensory stimuli, often referred to as the visual, auditory, kinesthetic and tactile (VAKT) approach. For example, if children are enabled to "see, hear, feel, and play with a word," the brain more readily establishes a long term memory track. Following is a summary of implications drawn from recent findings in neurobiology (Chomsky, 1968; Eimas,.1985; Goldman-Rakic, 1992; Peterson, Fox, Posner, Minton & Raichle, 1988) relevant to bilingual fostering.

Neurobiology has revealed that language functions are localized in the brain with language processing being predominantly located in the left hemisphere. This lends some support for the question as to whether the capacity to generate language is innate or learned (Silva, 1995).

However, there may be a critical period for language development in which learning has more effect. This period of acquisition is correlated and orchestrated with the neural development which coincides with the maturational stages of brain growth of dendrites indicating that the optimum time for language learning is from early childhood until adolescence when the brains of these children generate double the amount of energy of the adult brain (Silva, 1995). If this holds true for first language learning, what does this mean for the initiation of the second language?

Language occurs as the end result of synaptic transmission and translation of sensory input. The spoken expression of language is the sum total of electrical impulses and neurotransmissions responding to images perceived. The implication of this is that the state of a subject's health, both physical and mental, can have a profound impact upon the output of consciousness and language. The sensitive parent/teacher should be aware of the importance of the effects of physical and mental growth on language learning.

Special structures exist in the left hemisphere of the brain to facilitate speaking, visualization, hearing and reading within both sexes. However, in females, there appears to be greater right side activity during focus on emotional issues while males tend to compartmentalize on the left during concentration of spatial orientation tasks. Current research indicates that females have greater connectivity between the two halves of the brain providing more efficient second language acquisition.The influence of sex hormones, such as testosterone in males and estrogen in females may contribute to the greater specialization in females in understanding emotional issues. The implication here for educators is that males students may need additional instruction with the help of visual aides

The question for professionals in the field of facilitating second language acquisition concerns the recognition of biological determinants that are universal across cultures. Because the brain is malleable and is responsive to environmental influences, both the question of the innate biological nature of a person as well as environmental nurturing must be considered together. Referred to as neuroplasticity, this thesis concedes that the anatomical nature of the brain is responsive to environmental changes. This implies that the quality and clarity of early language models should be a key influence in language acquisition.

The nurture/nature issue brings up the question of language intelligence. Greater intelligence may be reflected by development of greater neural elaboration established during the early years of development acquired by mental stimulation that is novel and original in focus. The overall intelligent brain is an efficient one, using much less energy to accomplish a task after mastery. The implication here for educators would be to work on the development of language skills as early as possible.

Questions of how early language acquisition occurs can be explained by understanding that genetic and biochemical influences are present from the moment of conception. From the beginning, language acquisition continues at its maximum until puberty. Because initial language skills are heavily dependent on comprehension of nonverbal behaviors, it is surmised that continuous, close interactions with parents may contribute significantly to language acquisition.

Researchers and parents alike trying to understand bilingual acquisition also concern themselves with the problem of second language attrition. "Use it or lose it" has become an accepted principle in understanding other aspects of human biology. Early, continued consistent exposure to the second language is important. Also, research has indicated that learning and memory become integrated and clarified in relationship to meaningful exposure and repetition. The implications gleaned from neurobiology reflect that meaningful language practice may facilitate the recall of lost skills, thereby strengthening synaptic connections. It may be that skills are never lost but are dependent upon meaningful cues.

Bilingual Acquisition of 29 Case Study Subjects

Much of the analysis revealed through examining neurobiological factors is further supported through analysis of a group of 29 case studies from 17 bilingual families in Japan[1] (Kamada, 1995a; Kamada, 1995b). Various factors hypothesized to contribute to bilinguality were evaluated in each case. Although due to the small sampling size bringing statistical relevance into question, the purpose here was to establish a basis for the development of primary hypotheses for further research.

Aspects of each case were identified and indexed, according to assessments made on several variables. Such variables included: sex, age at interview, nationality and languages spoken by both parents, assessments of parental bilinguality, language relationships between family members, incidence and duration of minority language culture residence, and assessment of bilingual ability in the past and present. Analysis revealed a number of influences assumed to affect bilinguality. They can be categorized as factors which: 1) do *not* particularly contribute to bilingualism, 2) contribute *significantly* to bilingualism, and 3) contribute to *less-than-peer level* bilingualism.

Of the 29 cases, 13 were females and 16 were males. In10 of the 13 female cases the subjects successfully acquired bilinguality. Only 9 of the 16 male subjects were successful in acquiring bilinguality. Although this may not be a statistically reliable figure due to unbalanced data and sample size, nevertheless the higher female ratio score for bilingual acquisition here seems to support the above mentioned neurobiological explanation. Of these 29 cases, loss of bilinguality was observed in the following cases: total loss of minority language (6 cases), partial loss of minority language (4 cases), loss and re-acquisition of minority language (3 cases), and loss and re-acquisition of majority language (1 case). One case fell into three of the above categories with loss and re-acquisition occurring repeatedly as she changed environments.

The myth that bilinguality will certainly develop in children of bilingual parents, such as where one parent is a bilingual born of dual cultures or where one parent is a bilingual foreigner born in Japan (where the other parent is monolingual Japanese), was dispelled through the results of these cases, where 3 out of 3 such cases failed to acquire bilinguality. Another variable often assumed to contribute to bilinguality is when one parent is from the minority language culture. Often such children, especially of minority language mothers who are monolingual in the minority language, achieve bilinguality. However, in the seven cases where the father was from the minority language culture and the mother was Japanese, six failed to acquire bilingualism. Another factor in this category was identified which revealed that returnees who were not given immediate reinforcement in their minority language upon return to Japan were also at risk of not maintaining bilinguality.

In the second category, several factors were identified which were felt to significantly contribute to bilingualism. One such factor was the situation of both parents being from the minority language culture (6 of 7 cases acquired bilinguality). There was one case where both parents were Japanese, but used the minority language solely (English, and not Japanese) in the home. Thus, (regardless of their nationalities) both parents' use of the minority language with the child at home revealed an even stronger significant tendency for bilingual acquisition (8 out of 8 cases). Even in cases where only the mother used the minority language with the child at home or only the mother was from the minority language culture (and the father was Japanese) also proved to be significant (4 of 4 cases).

Giving returnee children immediate reinforcement in minority language instruction upon return to Japan was also identified as having significant contribution to bilinguality (6 of 6 cases). For children of Japanese parents, of mixed marriages, or of foreigners residing in Japan, overseas residence in minority language country proved to be strongly related to bilingual acquisition (16 of 21 cases). This was especially true for children whose overseas residence extended for at least 1 or 2 years, or for those who made frequent shorter trips.

Another factor identified to be significantly related to bilingual acquisition (see also Yamamoto, 1987), was when the language used between siblings was the minority language (10 of 10 cases). Also, in combination with other factors, a propensity in children to show precociousness in first language ability (5 of 6 cases) and situations where parents or caretakers employed good techniques and possessed and utilized many home tools such as minority language books, video and audio tapes (11 of 11 cases) were identified to be significantly correlated to bilingual acquisition. This idea of an interdependency between the first and second language has been greatly detailed also in reference to biliteracy (Cummins, 1989; Cummins, 1991).

Finally, several factors were identified which showed contribution to less-than-peer level bilinguality. This occurred when one or both parents, but especially the mother, mixed the two languages and there was not a clear separation of the two languages in the home. Also returnee children were seen to acquire less-than-peer level bilinguality when both parents' minority language ability was nil or less than that of the child.

In summary, caution is advised for those identified most at risk of not acquiring bilinguality as follows: families with minority language fathers and Japanese mothers, returnees who do not get immediate reinforcement in minority language instruction soon upon return to Japan, and those without opportunity to reside overseas very often or for very long. Parents are encouraged to try to use the minority language at home as much as possible, provide immediate reinforcement in minority language instruction for returnees, try to spend more time in residence in the country of the minority language culture, possess and use good techniques and minority language materials, and try to not mix languages.

A Child's Simultaneous Acquisition of Chinese and Japanese Syntax

Having identified in general terms significant factors thought to contribute to bilingualism based on a medium sized group of cases, we now turn to examine details of a specific case subject whose simultaneous acquisition of Chinese and Japanese sheds further understanding on the process of bilingual acquisition.

This case study examines the development of syntax of the presenter's oldest child, a Chinese girl (hereinafter referred to as "Y"), born and presently residing in Japan, who acquired Chinese and Japanese simultaneously. The child learned the minority language, Chinese, from her parents at home and the majority language, Japanese, at a day-care center. The purpose of this study was threefold, to examine: 1) the stages of the child's development of syntax of both languages between the ages of one and three, 2) the differences between the development of the syntax in the two languages, and 3) to study interference between the two languages in terms of syntax.

Based on a language journal kept by the author, this report examines the syntax of all the mother-child communication from 14 months to around the third birthday. Other aspects of the mother's journal have been reported elsewhere (Liu 1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1994a, 1994b, and 1995). Y's multiple-word utterances were divided into those that were completely Chinese, that were all Japanese, and that mixed the two languages. The syntax of each was then analyzed. Syntax theory was applied to divide Y's development of syntax into four stages. Next, the syntax of Y's multiple-word utterances in each stage was analyzed.

In the first stage (Presyntactic Stage; 1:1 - 1:5), most utterances in both languages were limited to single words. Multiple-word utterances first appeared from 1:4, but were limited in type and frequency. All multiple-word utterances in Chinese were exclamations whereas those in Japanese were of addressing someone, and two-word linked forms. Some mixing of the languages was observed, but, not in mixing of the syntaxes. Since none of the structures distinctive to either Japanese or Chinese syntax were yet observed, it was concluded that both languages were still in their presyntactic stage.

In the second stage (Combined Syntax Stage; 1:6 - 1:0), single-word utterances in both languages were still Y's main means of communication. There was a rapid increase in two-word utterances, however, characterized by the following language use: 1) structures that were similar in Chinese and Japanese syntax, 2) Chinese pivot words in Japanese word order, and 3) Japanese pivot words in utterances employing Japanese word order. Mixed-language utterances were of three types, those in which: 1) the languages had structures in common, and where Japanese words were used as pivot words and Chinese terms as open words following Japanese word order, 2) Japanese particles were used with single Chinese words, and 3) Chinese and Japanese words were employed that had the same meaning. It was concluded that since Y was using pivot words in both languages, she was starting to acquire syntax in both; however, her use of Chinese pivot words in Japanese word order makes it appear that she was using one syntactic system for both languages, based on the Japanese system of pivot and open words. For Y, two languages now had different names for the same thing.

The third stage (Combined Syntax Stage 2; 1:11 - 2:7) in the development of Y's syntax showed a striking increase in her vocabulary in both languages marked by multiple-word utterances. She began to employ a number of Chinese verb-object predicates, used as if they were single lexical items. Many cases of her use of Chinese verbs and objects in the Japanese word order indicated that she was not yet aware of the Chinese rules of syntax. During this period, Y also started to change verb and adjective endings in accordance with the rules of Japanese syntax. Her mixed-language utterances included the use of Chinese words in Japanese word order, use of equivalents in her two languages in repetitious utterances, and the addition of Japanese interjection, exclamation and sentence final particles to Chinese utterances. It was concluded that here, Y still was relying on one syntactic system, and that it was Japanese.

The fourth stage (Separate Syntax Stage; 1:6 - 3:0) of Y's syntactic development showed a marked increase in Chinese vocabulary, and a subsequent decrease in mixed utterances born of her insufficient knowledge of words in that language. Also, from about 2:6, she began using the distinctive Chinese SVO word order, and thereafter was able to employ Chinese syntax in Chinese utterances and Japanese syntax in Japanese utterances. Moreover, from about 2:7, Y began to regularly use Japanese case and conjunctive particles, indicating her mastery of Japanese syntax. Some use of Japanese words in Chinese utterances remained, however. Chinese words were also used in some Japanese sentences, but only at home, and were thought to be indicative of the dominance of Japanese. Thus, in the fourth stage of her syntactic development, Y was seen to have basically acquired the syntax of both languages and clearly separated them.

In summary, the development of billingualism for Y highlights her ability to traverse the four stages of syntax acquisition and learn the grammar of two languages through the maintenance of Chinese in the home and Japanese at the day-care, as well as conscious, appropriate language instruction on the part of the adults in these environments. While single-word utterances predominated in both languages in the first stage, by the end of the fourth stage,Y had acquired separate syntaxes for her two languages. Interference between the two languages developed during the second stage, with mixed-language utterances appearing then and Japanese word order predominating in the third stage, but with a gradual decrease in the forth stage in confusion in the syntax of the two languages and mixing due to lack of vocabulary in one of the languages. Although the use of Japanese auxiliary words in Chinese utterances appeared in the fourth stage, such mixing was evident only in conversation with Y's bilingual mother, and almost never in her Japanese environments. Thus, it was concluded that the child had, in fact, acquired the separate syntaxes for her two languages by the age of three.

Conclusion

The development of bilingualism in individuals is seen as encompassing a variety of factors, both innate and learned. Neurobiology provides an explanation for observable variables analyzed from case studies. For example, the advantage in bilingual acquisition seen for girls over boys is explained neurobiologically as greater right brain activity and connectivity between the two halves of the brain. Neurobiology has also provided us with brain maps showing not only how language acquisition starts from conception, but also revealing how children's brains generate more activity than adults providing an explanation for Y's success in separating the syntax of two separate languages by the age of three. The case study finding relating precociousness of children in first language to second language acquisition lends support to the physiological, innate nature of language acquisition. The enhancement of memory through sensory manipulation of language perhaps also explains Y's success with the energetic support of day-care teachers and linguist mother. The idea of neuroplasticity, in which the brain responds to environmental changes, helps to explain why bilinguality is acquired in children with mothers who employ good language learning techniques, and use of minority language materials such as revealed in the 29 case studies and also in Y's case. The explanation offered by neurobiology that the loss and recall of language may be dependent on meaningful clues gives hope to those whose second language attrition may yet reappear with future need and proper cluing.

Note

1 For more detailed information see: Kamada, L. (1993, Jan/Feb - 1995 Nov/Dec). Bilingual Family case study. *Bilingual Japan*. *2* (1), 14-16; *2* (2) 9-11; *2* (3), 8-10; *2* (4), 9-11; *2* (5),10-11; *2* (6), 13-14; *3* (1), 9-10; *3* (2), 10-11; *3* (3), 8-10; *3* (4), 9-11 ; *3* (5), 9-10; *3* (6), 11-13; *4* (1), 10-11; *4* (2), 9-10; *4* (3), 9-10 ; *4* (4), 11-12; *4* (5), 8-9; *4* (6), 11-12 .

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Early English Acquisition in the EFL Situation

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Introduction

The basis for arguments in favor of starting to teach English earlier in the elementary school is on Chomsky's LAD theory and the critical period hypothesis of Wilder Penfield (1953, 1959) and Lenneberg (1967). The purpose of this paper is to see whether there are any important mistakes in applying these theories in EFL situations and what the factors are that confuse many scholars and language policy-makers in these situations. To clear the confusion, the following questions will be answered:

1) Will a child attain proficiency in an EFL situation as the critical period hypothesis says?
2) Is the inability of foreign language learners to speak the target language after many years of study due to age or other important factors?
3) Is early acquisition of English in an ESL situation directly applicable to a child learner in the EFL situation?

This paper tries to solve the question with a proposal of three conditions for language acquisition: Language Acquisition Device (LAD), Input, and Language Needs.

Three Conditions for Language Acquisition

The LAD and the Critical Period Hypothesis

According to the LAD theory, a learner's LAD processes the incoming input automatically and produces output. Chomsky's proposal is that a child's brain is preprogrammed with some universal principles of language which he said is the universal grammar. This program makes the children learn a language so quickly without knowing within four or five years after birth. This LAD theory could provide an explanation for the children's language acquisition but could not explain why foreign language learners cannot attain fluency with his/her knowledge of the grammar and why his/her LAD does not work. The critical period hypothesis (CPH) seemed to provide an answer for this. But the CPH met many counterexamples. It was found that foreign language learners ' problems can be explained better by social and psychological factors (Krashen 1977, 1979, 1981; Schumann 1975).

The main points of Critical Period Hypothesis (Neufeld, 1979) are as follows:

- i) There are biological constraints upon second language learning in adults and these constraints are inevitable and irreversible.
- ii) No one beyond puberty can hope to achieve accent-free speech in a second language.

The neurophysiologist Penfield was influential in spreading this strong version of CPH (Penfield, 1953; Roberts, 1959; Stern 1978). Penfield's argument that the early years of life before puberty were crucial for learning was derived from his observations on the effect of brain damage on speech in children and adults. Penfield found that children before puberty who suffer brain damage in the speech area of the cerebral cortex recover speech better than adolescents or adults (Lenneberg, 1967). This age was equated with the period taken for lateralization of the language function to the left side of the brain to be completed.

The No Critical Period Hypothesis (Social Psychological Factors) is the result of more recent studies and tries to explain the difference between child and adult performance by social and psychological factors (Chun, 1980; Krashen, 1981, 1983; Schumann, 1975). This paper takes the No Critical Period Hypothesis (NCPH) which states that:

- i) There are no intrinsic differences between first and second language learning.
- ii) Language learning ability does not decrease with age.
- iii) The disparity between child and adult performance can be explained primarily by social and psychological factors which are independent of psycholinguistic abilities.

Input

Language input is the essential factor for language acquisition. Language input is the data on which the LAD can work for hypothesizing rules. The LAD responds to the appropriate input and forms the grammar of the language. The input factor is important in explaining how a child in an ESL situation and a child in an EFL situation are different and why the child in the ESL situation is successful in attaining English proficiency and why the child in the EFL situation is not. Table 1 clearly shows the difference in the amount of input in different situations.

Table 1. Comparison of Sources of Natural Input in L1, ESL, EFL and K-2G

Source	Situations			
	Ll	ESL	EFL	K-2G*
parents	O	O	x	x
brothers/sisters	O	O	x	x
peer groups	O	O	x	x
society	O	O	x	x
TV & radio	O	O	x	x
newspapers & magazines	O	O	x	x
books	O	O	x	x
teachers	O	O	?	x

*K-2G (Korean for second generation immigrants in English speaking countries)

Language Needs: Social and Psychological Variables

Language needs are another essential factor in language acquisition. Language needs include such affective factors as motivation, empathy, and ego boundaries. Language needs in the situations of L1, ESL, EFL and K-2G are compared in Table 2. This factor critically affects language acquisition. Lack of this factor causes loss of language as young children usually under the age five lose their first or second language when they move to another country where the language is not heard or spoken. Another case is where Korean immigrants' children fail to acquire Korean even though there is Korean input by their parents at home because there are no language needs to satisfy their physical or psychological needs.

Table 2 Comparison of Language Needs in L1, ESL, EFL, and K-2G

Primary Lang Needs	Secondary Lang Needs	L1	ESL	EFL	K-2G
Satisfying Physical Needs: water, food, etc.		O	O	x	x
Belongingness and love needs		O	O	x	x
Identity		O	O	x	x
Security		O	O	x	x
Self-Esteem		O	O	x	x
	Socializing with peer group	O	O	x	x
	Traveling	O	O	x	x
	Reading English	O	O	x	x
	Understanding English Movies	O	O	x	x
	Passing Tests	O	O	O	x
	Curiosity for the Unknown	O	O	x	x
	Ego Enhancement	O	O	x	x

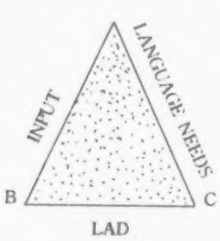
*K-2G (Korean for second generation immigrants in the English speaking countries.)

Comparison of Different Situations

The L1 Situation

Any normal child can learn a language. Speaking is achieved without much conscious effort. Speaking is spontaneous and automatic. A child speaks the mother tongue without consciously applying grammar. In this situation all three conditions are met: LAD is present, input comes from all sources, and there are language needs. Therefore this situation can be summarized as in Figure 1.

Figure 1: *L1 Situation*

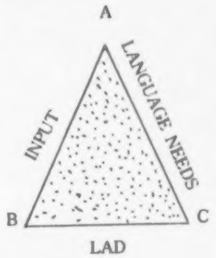


The ESL Situation

A Child in ESL

Children in this situation learn English without effort and their speaking is spontaneous and automatic. They speak English without consciously applying grammar. Three conditions, LAD, language input and language needs are fully satisfied. Language acquisition is successful. This situation can be summarized as in Figure 2.

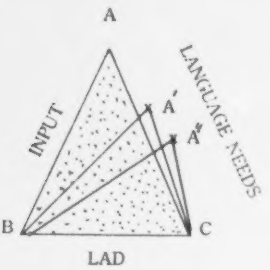
Figure 2: *A child in ESL*



Adults in ESL

Adults in this situation have no problem in acquiring English even though they retain foreign accents. Three conditions are satisfied in this situation. The difference between children and adults may be in the way that the adults socialize. Adults do not get involved in communication as children do and they cannot concentrate on language learning because of many other competing tasks. Schumann (1975) says that these social and psychological constraints cause difference in acquiring a language between a child and an adult. Figure 3 shows that language needs are the variable that makes the difference. According to how much language needs an adult learner has, language acquisition varies.

Figure 3: *An adult in ESL*



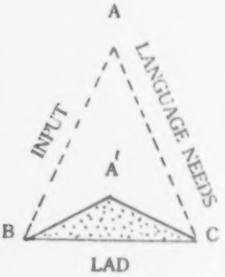
The EFL Situation

A Child in EFL

There is no report of successful acquisition of native-like proficiency in this situation. It is misleading that often the successful cases of learners in ESL situations are quoted as examples of early English acquisition. A child in an EFL situation speaks English by consciously applying the grammar. His/her speaking is neither spontaneous nor automatic.

The three conditions are not satisfied in this situation. The LAD is supposed to be in the learner's minds. There is no actual language input outside the classroom. Even English teachers will speak Korean in the English class. There are no language needs in any way in this situation. All the needs of the learners are satisfied in his/her first language which is Korean. Therefore the situation can be summarized as in Figure 4.

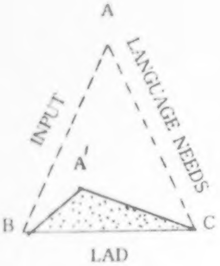
Figure 4: *A child in EFL*



An Adult in EFL

Speaking is the poorest in this situation. The learner has always to learn grammar consciously. When he speaks, he has to always consciously apply the grammar. His speech is neither spontaneous nor automatic. The adult learner's LAD is still with him.[1] But in this situation, lack of natural input and language needs as shown in Tables 1, 2, and 3 may be the factors that make their learning difficult. If these conditions are reflected, language learning can be summarized as Figure 5.

Figure 5: *An adult in EFL*



Empirical Data

Rejection of CPH

In spite of the initial favor, the CPH has been rejected by many scholars (Chun, 1980; Krashen, 1981, 1983; Schumann, 1975).

Studies in Second Language Situations

In this situation many studies showed that children are better than older learners in learning a second language. Most studies that proved the advantages of the early age were from the ESL situations. Children are better than older learners especially in the attainment of intonation (Asher & Garcia, 1969; Krashen, Long, & Scarcella, 1979; Oyama, 1976).

Studies in Foreign Language Situations

The study results in the EFL situation supports this paper's proposal of three conditions. With the deficiency of input and language, attainment of fluency was not as successful as expected, except in the case of immersion situation.

In the immersion situation, there are reports that early acquisition was successful. In the Canadian experimental programmes, both "early immersion" and "late immersion" were successful. The late immersion groups of children who had had only a two-year immersion at grades 7 and 8 reached levels of achievement in their second language which at the grade 9 level were comparable to grade 9 early immersion children who had been immersed for eight or nine years since kindergarten (Stern, 1978).

In the non-immersion situation, early teaching was not very successful. Two UNESCO-sponsored international meetings in Hamburg (1962, 1966) did not prove the superiority of an early start over a later start, even though they were intended to promote research on the effectiveness of an early start (Stern, 1978).

Also, the British project on Primary French, a longitudinal study between 1964 and 1974 through the cooperation of the Department of Education and Science of England and Wales, the National Foundation for Educational Research, the Nuffield Foundation and the schools Council, showed results that were not very clear. The early starters were not overwhelmingly better than the later starters. The researchers were very doubtful of the advantages of early teaching. They said that if there was any advantage at all for the early start, it was only that it allows more time for second language learning(Stern, 1978). Finally, research done by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement on teaching English as a foreign language in ten countries and teaching French as a foreign language in eight countries, provided no clear evidence that there is any special advantage in starting the study of a foreign language very early other than the fact that this may provide the student more time to attain a desired performance level at a given age (Stern, 1978).

Concluding Remarks

1. The three conditions essential for attaining proficiency in L1 or second/foreign language situations are: the LAD, Input, Language Needs.

2. The deficiency of one of these elements is the main cause of failure for attaining proficiency in the EFL situation, not because of the disappearance of the LAD after puberty or the critical period hypothesis.

3. Just starting to teach English in the EFL situation will not produce fluent speakers as it does in ESL situations, unless the three conditions are met.

4. The critical period hypothesis is rejected (Krashen and Terrell 1983; Chun, 1980). With the three conditions hypothesis, supposition of the disappearance of LAD or of the critical period hypothesis is not necessary. Children's superiority in attaining the native speaker's intonation is recognized. But achieving syntax has no correlation with the age. That is what Multiple Critical Period Hypothesis says(Seliger, 1978; Ellis, 1985).

Notes

1. [T]he ability to pick up languages does not disappear at puberty, as some have claimed, but is still with us as adults. (Krashen and Terrell,1983, p. 26).

2. [W]e have no clear empirical support for the hypothesis of a general decrease in L2 learning ability with age. (Chun, 1980, p. 288)

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Age Factors and Language Proficiency in Child SLA[1]

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Introduction

A longitudinal study of Japanese children acquiring English as a second language aroused my interest in age factors in second language acquisition (Yumoto 1984, 1990,1991). The purpose of this project is to investigate the relationship between age factors and L2 proficiency in a cross-sectional research project.[2]

The previous studies by Oyama (1976), Patkowsky (1982), and Johnson and Newport (1989) showed the age of arrival as the main factor in L2 proficiency and not the length of residence. Long (1990,1993) drew from these research findings a hypothesis of SLA as a function of the age of onset.

I propose the following working hypotheses:

1. the age of arrival is a determinant factor in overall L2 proficiency;
2. the age of arrival is correlated with L2 proficiency;
3. the later age arrivals with higher cognitive development will be more proficient than the early age arrivals; and
4. the length of stay correlates with L2 proficiency.

Method

Subjects

The subjects in this study were 108 Japanese children who were attending Rainbow Gakuen in Honolulu. They were attending local American schools weekdays. Not all of them completed the required tests and a questionnaire. Due to this missing data, the final number of subjects in the present paper turned out to be 67 of which 21 were first graders, 24 second graders, and 22 third graders. The age range of the subjects was from 6 to 9 years. The age of arrival was between zero and 9 years. The length of stay in the US varied from 4 to 114 months.

Materials

Description of Tests

The Language Assessment Scales (LAS) English Level 1 Form A (Grades K-5) was administered. The LAS consisted of five Tasks: I. Minimal pairs (30 items); II. Lexical (20 items); III. Phonemes (18 items); IV. Sentence comprehension (10 items); and V. Storytelling. Two examples were given before Tasks I-IV. The total score possible is 101 points. The testing time was 20 minutes.

Description of Questionnaire

The questionnaire consisted of:

1. Basic data about the subject: birth-place, gender, grade, age, age of arrival, experiences as overseas residents, length of stay, number of siblings,
2. Parents' interest in the child's academic studies (4 items),
3. Parents' evaluation of the child's language proficiency (9 items),
4. Language use at school (5 items), and
5. Language use at home (6 items).

Parents filled in the questionnaire and rated their child's language proficiency on a scale of 1-5.

Procedure

As it was difficult to administer an oral production test to 108 subjects in one short period of time, the basic design of the English LAS was modified to accommodate groups of subjects. The subjects were asked to answer in written form rather than orally. Thus, an additional skill other than listening was loaded into the original English LAS. For instance, Phoneme Task, repetition of sentences containing target sounds such as *th* as in "My father is further," was modified to a Dictation Task in this project. Taking account of the increased task load, the order of the whole structure was modified as follows: I. Minimal pairs, II. Lexical comprehension, III. Sentence comprehension, IV. Dictation, and V. Storytelling.

Another modification was made in the Lexical section (II). Instead of naming 20 lexical items orally, the subjects were to identify in the pictures what they were told and write down the number. For example, the tape says "Dog." Pause "Find the picture of a dog and write three." Extra cognitive processing complicated the task and the subjects did not follow the direction for the first 10 items. Since the first 10 items did not mirror their language competence, they were extracted from the analysis under the present study. Consequently, the subscore for Section II was 10 points instead of the 20 in the original LAS.

Another modification was made to the results. The subscores of Minimal pairs were taken out of the analysis due to environmental and internal factors; aside from the noise coming from the school-playground, the task of minimal pairs in English was beyond the comprehension of the young Japanese subjects. The total score for the English LAS was therefore 61 points instead of 101 points in the original LAS. The modified English LAS had a reliability coefficient of rxx=.9580. The LAS English was administered on December 4, 1993 at Kaimuki Intermediate School in Honolulu.

Analyses

Raw scores from the English LAS were submitted to correlational analyses. Then one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to check whether there were significant differences among the means of different groups. Some of the ANOVAs were followed up by more detailed Scheffe multiple-range tests to determine, in post hoc comparisons, exactly where any significant differences might be located.

Results

The Pearson product-moment correlation was used to establish relationships between variables. Exploratory comparisons were made between all the variables to discover which independent variables correlated to the total scores of the English LAS, the dependent variable. Independent variables were each a subscale score of the LAS English and all the variables in the questionnaire.

English proficiency assessed by the total scores of the English LAS subscales was correlated with the length of stay in the U.S. at .47 with a one-tailed significance of p<.001. English was negatively correlated with the age of arrival at -.40 (p<001). No significant correlation was found between age and English proficiency as assessed by the LAS scores.

The correlations can be interpreted as follows;

1. The longer subjects stayed in the U.S., the more proficient they were in terms of the English LAS.

2. The early age arrivals were more proficient in English than the later age arrivals within the range of zero to nine years of age at arrival.

I will further examine the above results in detail in relation to the working hypotheses in separate sections.

English LAS and Age Factors

The Pearson correlational analysis indicated no correlation between English proficiency in terms of the English LAS scores and age. However, detailed scrutiny of their relationships and relations with other age related variables revealed interesting facts.

Descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) were calculated for the English LAS scores. The results indicated a linear sequence of scores: the mean scores of the English LAS of 6 to 9 years of age were 15.75, 22.96, 23.92 and 24.46 points out of 61 full points, respectively (Table 1).

One of the characteristics of the older groups was their diversity in scores: the range of scores for the 9 year-old group was 46 points, that for 8 was 48, that for 7 was 34, and that for 6 was. In addition, the standard deviations were much larger in the older groups than in the younger ones. These values indicated a wider range of distribution away from the mean of the population for the older students, which meant that the data for these subjects were more widely scattered. The mean difference was small between 8 and 9 year-old groups (.53 pts), while larger between 6 and 7 year-old groups (7.21 pts).

Table 1: Means/English LAS (V48) By Age (V3)

Variable	Value Label	Mean	S D	Cases
For Entire Population		23.1940	12.2799	67
V3	6.0	15.7500	6.5000	4
V3	7.0	22.9583	9.9235	24
V3	8.0	23.9231	13.4042	26
V3	9.0	24.4615	15.3059	13

The combination of a one-way analysis of ANOVA and Scheffe multiple-range tests was performed to see the differences among the means of different age groups. Scheffe's post hoc comparison showed that any two means more than 2.19 points apart were significant at p<.05. The result indicated that no two groups were significantly different. There was some relationship between the English LAS and age in a linear sequence but it was statistically insignificant.

Next I investigated the relationships between the age of arrival and English proficiency assessed by the English LAS. They were negatively correlated: *r*= -.40 at p<.001. That is, the early age arrivals performed better in the English LAS than the later age arrivals. This is shown in Table 2, in which mean comparison for the English LAS of the entire range on the age arrivals, zero to nine years of age, were given. The values indicate that a few extreme scores especially in 1-year-old and the two later-age arrivals, 8 years of age, were given. The values indicate that a few extreme scores especially in 1-year-old and the two later-age arrivals, 8- and 9-years-old, pulled the mean in a direction favorable to the early age arrivals causing a positively skewed distribution. The second highest on the score falls on the 3-year-old arrivals following the extremely high score of a single subject of a 1-year-old arrival; the 4-to-6 year old groups scored close to the overall mean, which was 23.19 points out of 61 full scale. The order of group means on the LAS English were as follows: 1, 3, 0, 6, 5, 4, 2, 7, 9 and 8 year-old arrivals. Since the statistical figures in Table 2 offer no clear descending linear sequence of the English LAS scores parallel to the age of arrival, I grouped the subjects into three groups according to the age of arrival to see whether or not a few extreme scores had affected the tests. The first group consisted of the subjects who had arrived between zero to 3 years of age, the second group consisted of 4 to 6 years of age arrivals and the third group consists of 7 to 9 years of age arrivals.

The combination of a one-way ANOVA and a Scheffe multiple-range test was conducted to see differences among the means of different groups based on the age of arrivals. The ANOVA was first conducted using the English LAS scores yielding F=10.01; df=2; P=.0002, indicating a significant difference between the groups at -.47: the group mean of the English LAS is 27.97 points for the 0-3 age arrival group, 23.16 points for the 4-6 age group, and 11.33 points for 7-9 group (Table 3).

Scheffe's post hoc comparison indicated that any two means more than 3.54 points apart were significant at p<.05. Thus the group means omparison of the English LAS based on the age of arrival groups was significant. The statistical result confirmed that the early age arrivals were cmore proficient in English than the late age arrivals in the present study

Table 2: ***Means/English LAS (V48) By Age of Arrival (V4)***

Variable	Value Label	Mean	S D	Cases
For Entire Population		23.1940	12.2799	67
V4	.0	27.2778	11.8858	18
V4	1.0	43.0000	.0000	1
V4	2.0	19.0000	9.0921	4
V4	3.0	32.7143	11.1313	7
V4	4.0	22.6667	11.8603	6
V4	5.0	23.1111	9.4531	9
V4	6.0	23.5000	6.9322	10
V4	7.0	15.8333	16.1668	6
V4	8.0	6.4000	4.0373	5
V4	9.0	9.0000	.0000	1

.Age of Arrival and Length of Stay

While analyzing age-related variables, some interesting facts emerged. There was a very close relationships between the age of arrival and the length of stay. The two variables were strongly negatively correlated: *r*= -.93 at p<.001. The length of stay, in turn, was correlated to English proficiency scored in LAS: *r*= .47 at p<.001. Table 4 shows group mean statistics of the English LAS in relation to the length of stay. Table 5 confirms the high correlation between the age of arrival and the length of stay. It summarizes a striking structural feature of the Rainbow School population. The early arrivals, of which 18 subjects (or about 27% of the total subjects) were either born in the US (mostly in Hawaii) or arrived at zero year of age, had an extended length of stay in Hawaii: the mean length of stay of this group was 92.6 months, that of the 1 year age arrival is 90 months, that of 2 year age arrivals was 75.25 months and that of 3 year age arrivals was 56 months. Those who arrived between zero to 3 years of age amounted to 30 children or about 45% of the total subjects. The mean length of stay for those early arrivals is 78.5 months. The arrivals between 4 and 6 years of age amounted to 25 children or about 37 percent of the total subjects.

The mean length of stay for the age 4-6 arrivals was 33.6 months. The arrivals between 7-9 years of age accounted for 12 children or about 18 percent of the total subjects. The mean length of stay for those later age arrivals was 10.7 months. It was no wonder that the age of arrival and the length of stay was the strongest correlate found in the subjects in the present study (-.93 at p<.001).

Table 3: ***Means /ENGLISH LAS (V48) By Age of Arrival Groups (V4A)***

Variable	Value Label	Mean	S D	Cases
For Entire Population		23.1940	12.2799	67
V4A	0-3	27.9667	11.9004	30
V4A	4-6	23.1600	8.7877	25
V4A	7-9	11.3333	12.1381	12

Table 4: ***ENGLISH LAS (V48) By Length of Stay (V6)***

Variable	Value Label	Mean	S D	Cases
For Entire Population		23.1940	12.2799	67
V6	4.0	3.5000	4.9497	2
V6	5.0	9.3333	1.5275	3
V6	6.0	.0000	.0000	1
V6	8.0	21.0000	.0000	1
V6	10.0	9.0000	.0000	1
V6	12.0	14.0000	.0000	1
V6	13.0	15.0000	.0000	1
V6	14.0	17.0000	.0000	1
V6	15.0	23.0000	.0000	1
V6	17.0	14.5000	6.3640	2
V6	20.0	13.0000	.0000	1
V6	22.0	25.0000	.0000	1
V6	24.0	28.5000	26.1630	2
V6	27.0	19.6667	6.6583	3
V6	29.0	36.0000	.0000	1
V6	30.0	33.0000	.0000	1
V6	32.0	12.0000	.0000	1
V6	34.0	21.0000	.0000	1
V6	36.0	22.0000	8.1854	3
V6	38.0	17.0000	.0000	1
V6	40.0	31.0000	10.5357	3
V6	44.0	18.0000	.0000	1
V6	45.0	42.0000	.0000	1
V6	48.0	30.0000	18.3848	2
V6	49.0	6.0000	.0000	1
V6	52.0	25.0000	.0000	1
V6	53.0	28.0000	.0000	1
V6	55.0	23.0000	.0000	1
V6	58.0	33.0000	.0000	1
V6	65.0	48.0000	.0000	1
V6	68.0	20.0000	15.5563	2
V6	69.0	28.0000	.0000	1
V6	75.0	15.0000	.0000	1
V6	77.0	17.0000	.0000	1
V6	81.0	25.0000	.0000	1
V6	83.0	38.0000	.0000	1
V6	84.0	14.2500	9.8784	4
V6	88.0	33.0000	19.7990	2
V6	89.0	32.0000	.0000	1
V6	90.0	32.5000	14.8492	2
V6	91.0	26.0000	.0000	1
V6	96.0	28.0000	4.5461	4
V6	100.0	35.0000	.0000	1
V6	108.0	52.0000	.0000	1
V6	111.0	32.0000	.0000	1
V6	114.0	36.0000	.0000	1

Table 5: Means/Age of Arrival (V4) By Length of Stay(V6)

Variable	Value Label	Mean	S D	Cases
For Entire Population		51.1045	32.7946	67
V4	.0	92.6111	10.6226	18
V4	1.0	90.0000	.0000	1
V4	2.0	75.2500	9.5000	4
V4	3.0	56.0000	15.0555	7
V4	4.0	36.8333	9.4745	6
V4	5.0	41.5556	14.2488	9
V4	6.0	22.5000	8.7591	10
V4	7.0	13.6667	6.2183	6
V4	8.0	13.4000	19.9073	5
V4	9.0	5.0000	.0000	1

Since the high correlation between the age of arrival and the length of stay posed a key to the analysis of my subjects, I further investigated the close interrelationship between these two variables in relation to language proficiency. Table 6 shows the relationships between the age of arrival, the ranges of the length of stay, and the English LAS scorers. The striking feature is the diversity of range in the LAS scores. The scattered data for the English LAS is very distinctive: the range of zero year-age arrival is 44 and that for the 7 year-age arrivals is 47 scattered between zero to 47 points.

Table 6: ***Age of arrival, length of stay, English LAS***

Age/Ariv	Length(months)	E-LAS
0	75-114	8-52
1	90	43
2	68-88	9-31
3	36-83	15-48
4	24-48	10-43
5	20-69	12-42
6	8-36	14-36
7	6-24	0-47
8	4-49	0-8
9	5	9

Also note the 3, 4 and 5 year-age arrivals; they scored 15-48, 10-43 and 12-42 pts., with the range being 33, 33 and 30 pts., respectively. The widest range of the English LAS was 47 pts. of 7 age arrivals followed by 44 pts. of zero age arrivals. The zero year-old arrivals showed the most scattered range of scores in the English LAS.

Discussion

The observed data could be summarized as follows: 1. Correlating with English proficiency were the length of stay and the age of arrival (r=.47/-.40 at p<.001) and; 2. those two variables were themselves strongly negatively correlated (r= -.93 at p<.001). As a consequence of the fact that the earlier arrivals stayed much longer than the later arrivals, and the age of arrival and the length of stay posed to be the main correlates with English proficiency in this study, a generalization might be made that younger arrivals (and thus the longer stay) were better in L2.

This premise is counter to my hypothesis that the later age arrivals with higher cognitive development would be more proficient in L2 than the early age arrivals. Subsequently, the results support Long's hypothesis of SLA as a function of age of onset.

However, two facts should be pointed out. First, the correlation for the age of arrival and English proficiency was weak and not decisively high in my study (-.40 at p<.001) as it is usually higher (.60) in other studies. Secondly, those who were born in Hawaii stayed extensively longer, but their English LAS scores ranged very widely from 8 to 52 out of 61 points. These points seemed to suggest that the age of arrival could not be a critical factor for L2 proficiency in my subjects.

The diversity of the data from my subjects poses a question that "the younger the arrivals the better concept" is not necessarily true in my study. Figure 1 shows the diversity of scores in a scatterplot in which the age of arrival was presented on the X axis and the English LAS score on the Y axis. The scatterplot shows that the age of arrival was not the decisive factor in English proficiency in my study evidenced by the zero-age arrivals of whom 12 subjects out of 18 scored below 35 points.

Figure1. **Plot of ENGLISH LAS (V48) With Age of Arrival (V4)**

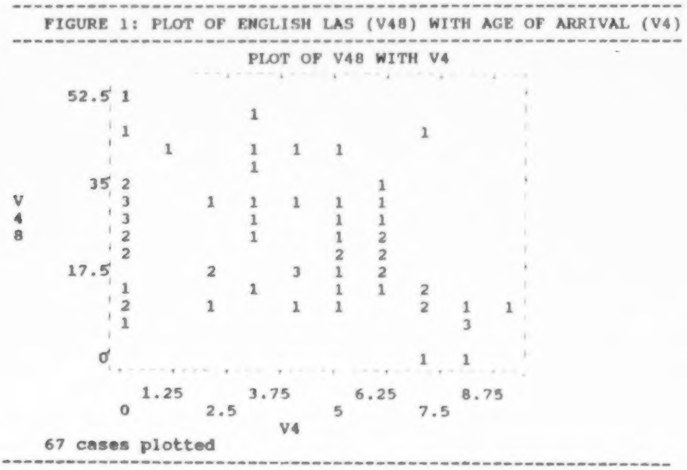
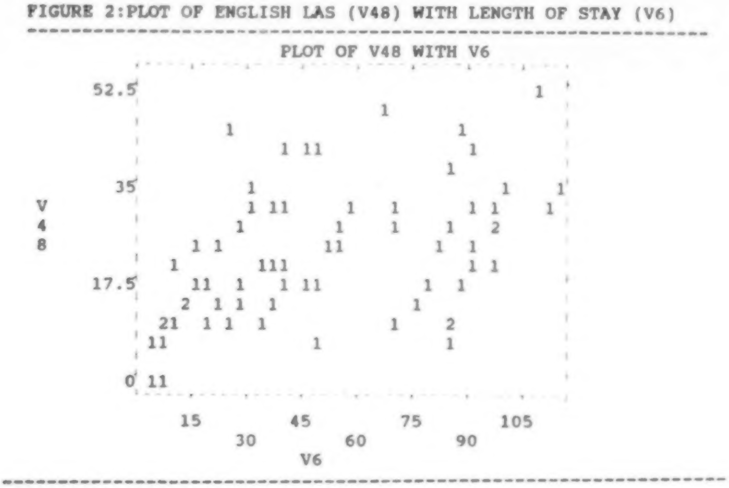


Figure 2. Plot of ENGLISH LAS (V48) With Length of Stay (V6)



The most distinctive structural feature of the children learning at the Rainbow School is that they are divided into two large groups: the short-stay and longer-stay groups. Those who stay less than three years make up 40 % of the total population and those who were born in the States or arrived soon after their birth make up another 40% of the subjects (according to the school's 1989 survey). The children in the latter group tended to stay longer. This means that the demographic structure is skewed into those groups.

Two population structures distinctive to the Rainbow School were exemplified in Figure 2, in which all the subjects were plotted in terms of the English LAS scores and their length of stay. We see double regression structures in the scatterplot, the one concentrated to the shorter length of stay and the other to the longer length of stay. This structural characteristic explains the correlation of the length of stay, which was coupled with the early arrival, to English proficiency. However, as we see in Figure 2, the scatterplot showed the diversity of the English LAS scores in relation to the length of stay. The length of stay does not necessarily predict proficiency. I can only conclude that the length of stay is not a critical factor for English proficiency in my subjects. The correlation between English proficiency and the length of stay was weak.

Figure 3 Plot of Length of Stay (V6) With Age of Arrival (V4)

```
FIGURE 3:PLOT OF LENGTH OF STAY (V6) WITH AGE OF ARRIVAL (V4)
-----------------------------------------------------------------
                    PLOT OF V6 WITH V4

   112.5' 2
          1
          5
          4   1   1
          5           1
      75' 1       1
V                 2   1       1
6                     1
                      2       1           1
                      1   2   1
    37.5'             1   2   4   1
                          1   1   4
                          1   1   1   1
                                  3   3
                                  1   2   4   1
       0'

            1.25      3.75      6.25      8.75
          0       2.5       5         7.5
                          V4
```

sequence of increase in the English LAS scores with age might be found significant if the age range is widened. By the same token, the narrow age range might have affected the weak correlation between L2 proficiency and the age of arrival. Correlations may turn out to be stronger, if the age range is widened and the early age arrivals are compared with a length of stay equivalent to that of the later arrivals former.

To conclude, the age of arrival is not a determinant factor in L2 proficiency, although the former and the length of stay are found correlated with the latter. The working hypothesis 1 is refuted while 2 and 4 are supported; 3 was inconclusive in the present study due to the narrow range of the subjects. Whether the findings are specific to the population of Rainbow School is left to further study in which subjects from other Japanese schools should be compared with those of the Rainbow School's.

Conclusions

1. Significant correlations were found between English proficiency and the length of stay/the age of arrival (r=.47/-.40 at p<.001) within the arrival range of zero to 9 years of age. The degree of correlation was not high.

2. A strong correlation was found between the age of arrival and the length of stay (r=-.93 at p<.001). The result reflects the demographic structure of the subjects: the early-age arrivals make up the longer-stay group, and the later-age arrivals, the short-stay group.

3. The corollary drawn from these results is that the earlier the subjects arrive (thus, the longer the stay), the more proficient they are in English, or to put it another way, the later they arrive (thus, the shorter the stay), the less proficient.

4. The early arrivals were generally more proficient in English than the later arrivals. However, L2 proficiency was scattered widely among the early arrivals: the zero year age group showed the widest range of proficiency. "The younger the arrivals the better" concept was not strongly supported in the study because of the diversity of the range in L2 proficiency coupled with the weak correlation between the age of arrival and the English LAS scores.

5. The study showed a linear relationship of English LAS scores to age, but the relationship was statistically insignificant. The fact that no statistical correlation was found between the age variable and English proficiency may be explained by the relatively narrow age range (6-9 years old) of the subjects. The insignificant linear

Notes

1. This project was done while I was a Ministry of Education research fellow at the Department of ESL, University of Hawai'i as a Ministry of Education research fellow.

2. The project also investigated FL/SL relations in terms of Cummins' (1980) L1/L2 interdependent hypothesis; however, due to limited space the result of that is reported in an another paper. As there is no LAS Japanese version, the LAS English was translated into Japanese. Separate Tasks I and III were developed independently with Dr. Toshiaki Ishiguro, a visiting colleague of the Department of ESL. The translated version of the Japanese LAS had a reliablility coefficient of $^{\alpha\alpha}$.8645. Kazuko Yumoto recorded the Japanese version. It was administered on December 11, 1993.

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Appendix

Language Assessment Scales (Modified)

I. Task One (Minimal Pairs)

Please look at page 1. You are going to hear two words on the tape and I want you to tell me if they sound the same or different. Let us practice.

Example one: beet-beet.
They are the same, so please draw a circle in the answer sheet.

Example two: pat-bat
They are different, so write an X in the answer sheet.

Now let us begin.

1. them-them
2. then-den
3. very-berry
4. five-five
5. yellow-yellow
6. ear-year
7. hit-hit
8. hop-up
9. spun-spun
10. especially-specially
11. pet-pat
12. back-back
13. deep-dip
14. meat-meat
15. sing-sink
16. rang-rang
17. thumb-thump
18. thin-sin
19. chain-chain
20. shop-chop
21. rice-lice
22. ten-tan
23. set-set
24. send-sent
25. mold-mold
26. peel-pill
27. mob-mop
28. cold-gold
29. whether-weather
30. rain-ray

II. Task Two (Lexical)

Please turn to page 2. We have some drawings here. I want you to listen to the tape. You will hear a word. I want you to find the picture that goes with the word. Next, in the picture write the number I tell you. Let us practice.

Example one: knife (3).
Did everyone write the number 3 inside the box with the picture of the knife?

Now turn to page 3, and let us begin.

1.	table	(4)	6.	bicycle	(1)
2.	train	(6)	7.	elephant	(7)
3.	dog	(8)	8.	banana	(10)
4.	apple	(2)	9.	knife	(3)
5.	couch	(9)	10.	space ship	(5)

Now turn to page 4. Let us continue.

11.	chicken	(7)	16.	water melon	(5)
12.	bread	(3)	17.	candle	(4)
13.	hammer	(10)	18.	airplane	(6)
14.	submarine	(1)	19.	camel	(4)
15.	dinosaur	(9)	20.	cheese	(8)

III. Task Three (Sentence comprehension)

Please turn to page 5. Now we have some more pictures here. I want you to listen to the tape and then circle the picture that goes with what you hear.

Example one: "The thin girl is sweeping the floor."
Did everybody choose the picture on the left?

Now turn to page 6.

Example two: "The girl is pulled by the horse."
Did everybody choose the picture in the upper left-hand corner?

Now let us begin the test. Turn to page 7.

1. The fork is held by the girl, but the spoon is held by the boy.
2. The woman is sitting in the little car and the man is sitting with her.
3. The little girl who is wearing a dress and riding the bicycle is being pushed by the boy.
4. There are five animals: two ducks and three chickens. Circle the little boy who is holding his hand up.
5. One girl is eating with a fork; the other girl is holding a spoon but not eating. Circle the girl who is stirring.
6. If you were asked to circle the picture which shows only half of the people in the picture crying, which picture would you circle?
7. After the big girl rode the horse, she helped the little girl get on.
8. There are three pictures of little boys. Circle the picture where there is only one little boy who is not standing.
9. Circle the picture which shows no more than one boy who is sitting and one barefoot girl talking on the telephone to a friend who cannot be seen in the picture.
10. Circle the picture which shows a spotted dog and a striped cat, neither of which is jumping over the fence.

IV. Task Four (Dictation)

Now turn to page 17. This time I want you to write exactly what you hear on the tape. Are you ready?

Example: If you hear "It's raining," you write "It's raining."
Now let us begin.

1. My father is further away.
2. The rivers are moving.
3. The yard is yellow.
4. The hat is hot.
5. He hugged the bug.
6. He sat on a mat.
7. The snail can spin.
8. Old Kathy is thin.
9. He chewed his chocolate.
10. The boys were busy.
11. Let the pet in.
12. The food was good.
13. He bit the chip.
14. The crab was in the tub.
15. They need the feed.
16. My gum is good.
17. There's white and wheat.
18. The pig was in the park.

V. Task Five (Written Production: Storytelling)

Please turn now to page 18. Now you are going to hear a story while you are looking at these four pictures. Listen to the tape very carefully, because I want you to write the story after you hear it. You will hear the story only once. Are you ready?

Once upon a time there was a big black crow who was very thirsty. So she flew around looking for some water. By and by, just before she got to the bridge, she saw what looked like a pitcher of water. But when the crow flew down she was very disappointed. The water was at the bottom of the pitcher and she couldn't reach it with her beak. "I wonder how I can get that water," the crow thought. "I have to have a plan," she said. So the crow thought and thought. Finally she thought of a plan. She started dropping pebbles into the pitcher. Each time she dropped a pebble, the water came up a little higher. When it reached the top of the pitcher, the clever crow could drink the water and quench her thirst. After she had plenty of water, she flew off to visit her friend.

Now begin writing the story you just heard on the back of page 17.

(after 5 minutes)

This is the end of the test.

Development of Framework[1] in K-12 Japanese as a Second Language

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Background

The purpose of this paper is twofold: to present the background of the Framework which was developed as a collaborative effort among teachers and administrators, and to introduce the guiding principles which are the central themes in the Framework. The rapid increase in the awareness of foreign language instruction for younger learners, in North America particularly, attracts attention to languages such as Japanese. Teaching Japanese as a second language in precollegiate levels in North American, Australia, and elsewhere has gained much currency in the last decade, as the number of learners of all ages has increased (e.g. Marriott, Neustupny, Spence-Brown, 1993; Okazaki & Okazaki, 1991). For example, in the United States, though Spanish has the largest number of learners, Japanese courses showed the most increase as a foreign language subject. In the U.S., the enrollment of high school students in Japanese increased from 25,123 in 1992 to 42,787 in 1994, or a 41% increase (*The Breeze*, 1995). In Australia, by 1988, the enrollment figures for Japanese had doubled, and overtook French by 1989 at the tertiary level (Marriott, Neustupny, Spence-Brown, 1993). This increased interest is indeed also alive in Japan in the group called JCIS (Japan Council of International Schools).[2] Member schools in JCIS are K-12 (primary and secondary levels) private schools where the medium of instruction is English, and whose curricula are mostly based on the North American system.

In order to respond to the changing needs in language learning theories and practice, JCIS started what was called the Japanese Language Project[3] (JLP) in 1992. Through the survey conducted in the project, Japanese language was found to be one of the vital components of the overall programs in JCIS. Through several workshops held for professional development, teachers began a strong effort to network.[4] The call for a framework was put forth during the workshops, meetings, and informal contacts with the Japanese language teachers. This was in response to the need for a communicative approach to language learning. JCIS, like everyone else, has been going through a shift in their Japanese language classroom practice as well as in the area of curriculum development.

Some background is necessary here. First, JCIS schools are unlike public K-12 schools in Japan and elsewhere. JCIS teachers, working for private schools, have curriculum development and renewal as part of their responsibilities. JCIS itself has a networking function, and does not act as the governing authority of member schools as the Ministry of Education does for Japanese public schools. Thus each JCIS school has a curriculum articulated according to the goals and objectives of its own program. Second, it is given that curriculum development is an on-going process. It is to be reviewed periodically and up-dated. In one school in JCIS, for example, there is a long term plan for curriculum renewal that is activated every five years. In each area, whether it is Japanese, social studies, or technology, the school will actively review its curriculum for the entire school. Third, curriculum renewal is a collaborative effort among teachers, curriculum coordinators, department chairs, and administrators. Parents are not usually part of the team, but they have access to the results, if they are interested.

In the last decade or so, one the the buzz words in the field of teaching Japanese as a second/foreign language has been "diversity." JCIS Japanese language programs are exemplars of "diversity." The survey from the JLP (Kite 1995b) reveals that the learners are diverse in their L1, knowledge of Japanese, language usage patterns at home and community, and parents' language(s). Programs show as much diversity as the learners according to the school's goals and objectives. Some focus on the cultural aspects, and some have the characteristics of a bilingual program. Among these aspects of diversity, the following are common elements:

1. Japanese language programs are a vital part of the overall JCIS programs. Japanese is taught as a requirement [5] in 96% of the elementary schools, (or 22 out of 23 schools), 68% of the middle school [6] and 44% of the high schools. In middle and high schools where foreign languages are offered, Japanese has the highest enrollment (Japanese 89%, French 8%, Spanish 3%). Most of the school administrators (95%) consider Japanese language instruction a valued part of their curriculum.
2. Through the survey, the Japanese language teachers expressed a strong desire to strengthen their network. The JLP helped to forge a strong bond among teachers by making them aware that their professional concerns are similar, and they can indeed work together (see Kite 1994, 1995a).
3. The areas of concern among the teachers, program coordinators, and administrators are consistent.

Two areas were identified: curriculum and classroom management. Teachers expressed this consistently in workshop evaluation forms, meeting minutes, and reaction sheets. In the survey results, curriculum/syllabus and related issues such as the number of ability levels in one class, was mentioned by 41% of respondents as one area for concern. Classroom management ranked second at 29%.

The concerns about curriculum are expected, if the teaching context at JCIS, where curriculum renewal is an on-going process is considered. The need for a framework emerges from teachers as well as from the program organizers in an attempt to respond to the changing needs in a classroom. A framework is defined as "a resource and a planning tool for planning, implementing and evaluating language programs" (Nunan 1994). In the field of foreign language instruction, numerous frameworks/guidelines are available (see the Framework 1995 resources and references section). Some are geared to high school foreign language programs (e.g. Indiana Department of Education 1986; Minnesota Department of Education 1988; National Standards, in preparation). Some advocate foreign language instruction at an earlier age (e.g., California 1989; South Carolina 1994) . Though written for adults, the ones from the National Curriculum Project (Nunan & Burton, 1989) are written for specific leaners or skills. The most comprehensive guidelines for K-12 comes from Australia (Scarino, Angela et al., 1988). In the field of teaching Japanese, two were published in the U.S. (Brockett, 1994; Unger, 1993). Both are aimed at Japanese programs at high schools in a foreign language setting. (See the review of all available frameworks for teaching Japanese in the Framework, 1995, and *Forum Tsuushin*, Dec. 1995).

Reviews of the available frameworks led to the development of our own framework. We considered three points: (1) consistency with theories and practices of second language learning, (2) relevance to our teaching context (learners' age, Japanese as a host language), and (3) ability to engage teachers and educators. The strengths of each framework were consolidated and adjusted to fit the JCIS context.

Scope of Framework

No framework can cover all the learner's ages, learning objectives, and learning context. For our JCIS context, the scope of the Framework was defined as follows:

- elementary and secondary students in JCIS
- students whose first language is not Japanese
- students with no previous knowledge of, or limited proficiency in Japanese

In the Framework, we also noted that learners are a diverse group with the following characteristics. Students are diverse in:

- first language
- learning styles and strategies
- aptitude and motivation
- interest in using language outside the classroom

Guiding Principles

In developing a framework to help teachers plan, implement, and evaluate courses for teaching Japanese as a second language, it was necessary, in the first instance, to think through and articulate a set of philosophical principles. We developed these principles with reference to four key elements: (1) language, (2) learning, (3) learners, and (4) sociocultural context. Set out below are the key principles which we believe should guide the development of curricula.

Language

Language forms and communicative functions are integrated.

Mastering language forms, that is, the pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary of Japanese, is central to successfully acquiring the language. However, language forms must not be taught separately from the communication skills that learners wish to develop. When language is taught in ways which make clear the relationship between language forms and their usage, learners are best able to choose the right patterns to express their ideas and feelings. In other words, while learners should be given a systematic introduction to pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, the emphasis should remain on the way these forms are used to communicate.

The materials must also make clear the sociocultural contexts within which particular grammatical and vocabulary choices are made, so that learners will be able to make choices that are not only grammatically correct but communicatively appropriate.

Language is purposeful.

This is closely related to the preceding one, and highlights the fact that all spoken and written language occurs in a context of usage, and that the words and structures we use are always closely related to this context and purpose. In other words, the overall structure, appearance, and grammatical elements of language in usage reflect the purposes for which the language itself was created.

Language is presented as an interlocking set of systems and subsystems.

Language exists as interlocking systems of sounds, words, and grammar. These different elements can be isolated for the purposes of study. However, in order to be able to use them communicatively, learners need to experience the various subsystems in an integrated fashion. The traditional way of teaching second and foreign languages is to begin with the smallest elements (individual sounds and words) and build up to the largest (complete texts and discourses). However, in recent years, the trend has been to adopt a more holistic approach. This means that from the earliest stages, learners should encounter pieces of language produced in the course of meaningful interaction, that is, language as discourse.

Learners are presented with authentic data.

In traditional classrooms, learners are exposed to spoken and written texts which have been written specially for the classroom. As a consequence, they often find it difficult to understand language used in the world beyond the classroom. We believe that from the earliest stages students should study samples of spoken and written texts which are typical of the types of language they are likely to encounter outside the classroom.

Spoken language has priority.

In most contexts, communication means speaking Japanese. Spoken language and language forms should therefore be given priority in the Japanese language classroom.

Learning

The curriculum incorporates learning-how-to-learn goals as well as language content goals.

In addition to teaching language, instruction should also develop learning skills. There are many ways in which this can be done. For example, learners can be encouraged to reflect on the goals of their learning, and the strategies underlying learning tasks can be made explicit. Likewise, the students can be encouraged to make choices, and they can be involved in monitoring and assessing their own progress.

Materials should develop the learner's thinking and reasoning strategies, so that he or she learns how to learn in a more systematic way. This requires that tasks are carefully constructed so as to become gradually more cognitively complex. For example, skills in processing information should be introduced before students learn to interpret data. But students should be taught to interpret data before being asked to bring their own experiences to bear on it.

Learners are actively involved in using the language in a wide range of communicative activities.

A growing body of evidence suggests that learners learn best by actively using the language in communicative activities. The evidence suggests a clear relationship between the amount of time a learner spends using the language, and how far he/she progresses in acquiring it. The curriculum should therefore emphasize getting students to do things with language. Learners learn by doing. Following earlier principles, the stress should not be primarily on learning about language, but on using it. The relevant questions here are: "What can you do with your Japanese?" "Can you obtain information from a range of aural and written sources and use it to some communicative end?" "What goods and services can you obtain?" "What concepts can you express and interpret in the Japanese you know?" "Can you express your opinions and feelings and interpret those of others?" "Can you persuade others and respond to their points of view?"

There is a deliberate focus on form to support the development of the ability to use the language.

Learners do not acquire language one item at a time, perfectly. Rather, they acquire numerous features at once, imperfectly. In other words, mastery of language form is an organic, rather than linear process. It therefore follows that learning items should be recycled and represented in a wide range of contexts and situations. Learners learn language organically absorbing more than one thing at a time and gradually making adjustments to what they already know as they are confronted with new data. Accordingly, we should try to emulate this gradual accumulation and transformation of what learners know, rather than adopting a strictly sequential and mechanical model of progression through the syllabus.

Language is introduced and reintroduced cyclically and developmentally.

In terms of language development, we believe that learning is an organic, spiral process, not a linear one. One consequence of this view is that recycling of content, topics, grammar, etc., is considered to be healthy because it reinforces the way in which children acquire language.

Learners

Instruction is directed towards supporting and enhancing the learner's cognitive, affective, social and cultural development.

It needs to be borne firmly in mind that JSL is an integral part of the educational experience of the student. The language classroom should therefore strive to teach the intellectual, social, cultural, and moral values which should be the ultimate aim of all educators. In language learning this can be done through the development of cognitive tasks such as classifying, deductive and inductive learning, inferencing, etc., through socialization tasks associated with cooperative, group learning, and through culturally appropriate themes and content.

Experiential content reflects the learner's needs and interests.

The materials will need to choose themes and topics which match the interests and aspirations of the JCIS school student and which are in harmony with the culture and context within which the learning takes place. As a general principle we suggest that the thematic focus should be the individual in relation to his/her local, national, and international environments. The curriculum should emphasize the gradual development of four worlds in the learner:

(i) The language and communication world;
(ii) The knowledge and content world;
(iii) The cognitive and learning world;
(iv) The social and interpersonal world.

Accordingly, texts and tasks should be chosen which contribute to all four of the above worlds, not merely, for example, the world of language alone. The learner is developing as an individual in terms of all four worlds as the curriculum proceeds.

Students are assisted in making connections between school and the world beyond the classroom, and are give skills to learn independently.

The fact that students are living and learning in communities where Japanese is the medium of instruction should be acknowledged and exploited. Learners should be encouraged to make connections between the language they encounter in the classroom and the language which surrounds them in the community. As their mastery increases, they should be involved in collecting samples of language for study and exploitation within the classroom.

Learning opportunities reflect the fact that learners are different and learn in different ways.

The curriculum should reflect the fact that learners are different and learn in different ways. This can be achieved through building diversity into the language content and learning processes in the curriculum.

Socio-cultural Context

Learners reflect upon and develop language within a Japanese cultural setting and context.

The curriculum must make explicit the complex interrelationships between language, society and culture. In all societies, critical cultural elements are reflected in the language. In Japan, the appropriateness of language forms is more determined by the relationship between the speakers in a conversation. Students of Japanese will come to an appreciate the fact that language is a manifestation of society and culture.

Learners develop an understanding of the culture of the Japanese community.

The curriculum should encourage "cultural education" across the curriculum, not focused strictly on classroom Japanese. Students should participate in or experience a wide range of cultural events, both traditional and popular, for example, the tea ceremony, *kabuki*, chopsticks, and Japanese baths.

Learners increase, through their emerging mastery of Japanese, the possibility of understanding, friendship, and cooperation with people who speak Japanese.

The curriculum should encourage students to establish relationships with speakers of Japanese beyond the confines of the classroom and the school. Through access to the Japanese community, students will develop an appreciation of the host country and its people.

Learners deepen their understanding and appreciation of their own language and culture.

By activating their language outside the classroom, students develop an understanding not only of the role of language in Japanese culture, but of the role of language in their own culture.

JCIS and Beyond

Although this Framework has specific audiences in mind, as seen above, the Framework can serve many Japanese language educators beyond JCIS. One of the strengths of this Framework is that it includes both theories and practical application devices. Theories presented are consistent with the communicative approach in second language acquisition theory and instruction. Therefore the Framework can speak to language educators in general. We believe that the guiding principles set forth can serve learners of any age, of different goals (than just gaining greater involvement in Japanese society), and in any context (outside of Japan). Not only are the theories expressed in a user-friendly manner, but there are examples for applications useful in many contexts. For example, when a teacher endorses the notion of "learner-centered" (Nunan 1988) and "task-based learning" (Nunan 1989), then the rationale and ways in which one can incorporate such notions in one's curriculum are clearly stated in the Framework.

The second distinct strength in our Framework is that it can indeed "engage" teachers and those concerned in language learning by providing explicit ways to use this document. One such idea is action research. The framework articulates one-by-one steps on how one can engage in such professional development both in second and foreign language contexts. This is crucial. Otherwise it would simply collect dust on a shelf.

As far as we know this is the first Framework developed in Japan. As we stated, this document is just a beginning. It has ample potential as a tool for many language teachers and administrators.

Notes

1. *A Framework for Teaching Japanese as a Second Language. The Japan Council of International Schools Curriculum Development & Renewal Project for the Teaching of Japanese as a Second Language.* (1995). Tokyo: The Japanese Ministry of Education and the Japan council of International Schools. The authors wish to express gratitude for funding of which made this document possible. The authors are consultants and writing team members of this Framework.

2. An association of K-12 international schools whose program is based on North American curricula (N=27, and the total enrollment=8,500+). For details, see *Outline of international schools in Japan,* (1995). Tokyo: Ministry of Education, Science, and Culture.

3. See the report on the Japanese Language Project in Kite, Y. (1995b) for details.

4. The Kanto (Tokyo and northern area) region had their own networking. The JLP was the first to put all the teachers both in Kanto and Kansai (Nagoya west) together.

5. The only exception according to the survey results was those students who are enrolled in ESOL. They do not usually take Japanese. This is claimed due to the idea that the students' English development is the primary focus. Second, this seems to be a reflection of the first reason, ESOL and Japanese are taught at the same time.

6. Grades 6 through 9 in most of the JCIS schools.

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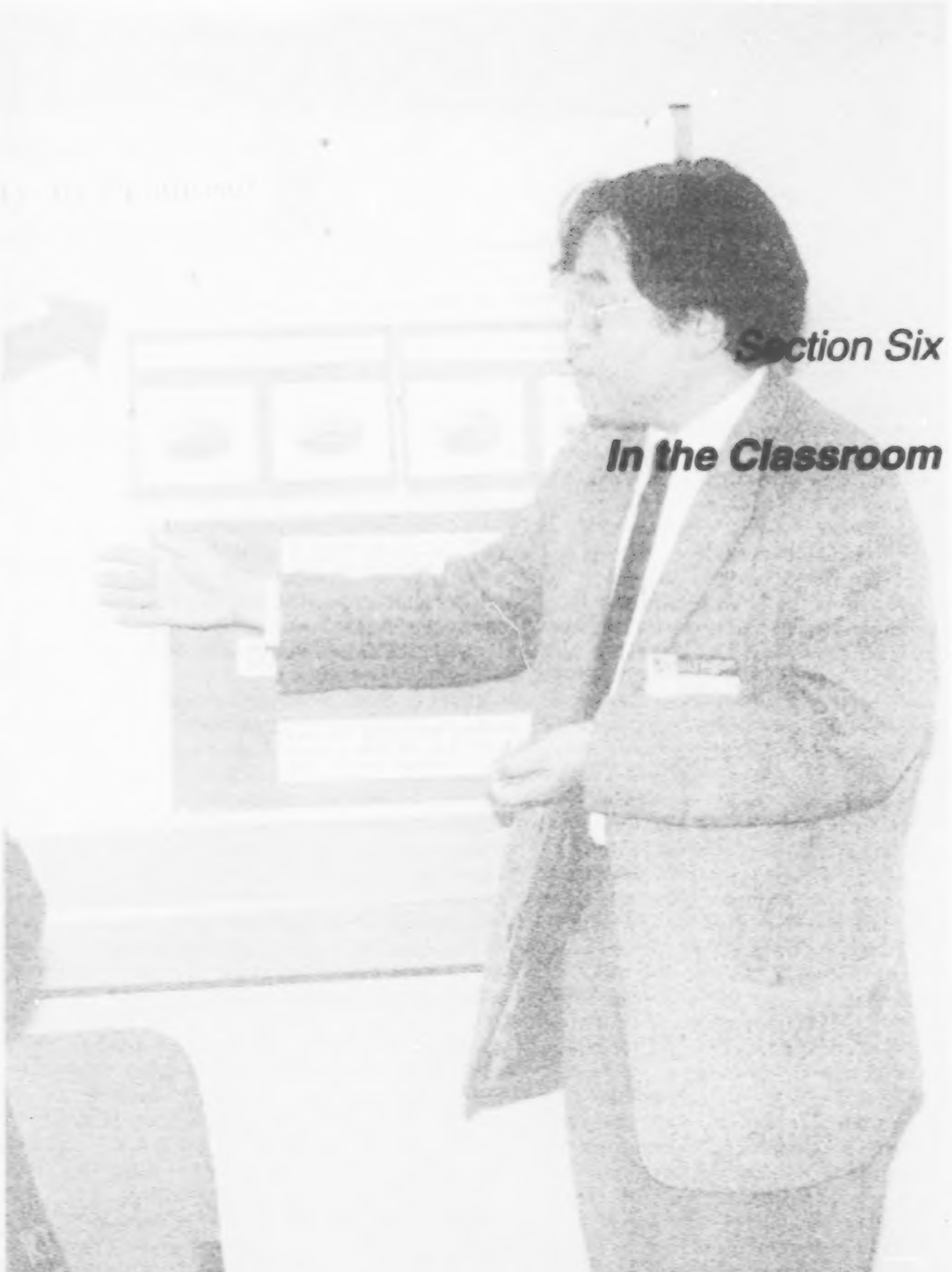

Section Six

In the Classroom

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Fluency Development

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Definitions of *fluency* abound in the literature. Hartmann and Stork (1976, p. 86) define fluency as the ability to use "structures accurately whilst concentrating on content rather than form, using the units and patterns automatically at normal conversational speed." Fillmore (1979) proposed four kinds of fluency, the abilities: (a) to fill time with talk, (b) to talk in coherent, reasoned, and semantically dense sentences, (c) to have appropriate things to say in a wide range of contexts, and (d) to be creative and imaginative in using the language. Brumfit (1984, p. 56) simply defined fluency as "natural language use." He also pointed out that Fillmore's four kinds of fluency are related to four characteristics (speed and continuity, coherence, context-sensitivity, and creativity) which are in turn associated with four sets of abilities: psychomotor, cognitive, affective, and aesthetic (p. 54).

Richards, Platt, and Weber (1985, p. 108) defined fluency as "the features which give speech the qualities of being natural and normal, including native-like use of pausing, rhythm, intonation, stress, rate of speaking, and use of interjections and interruptions." Lennon (1990, pp. 388-389) pointed out that fluency has two senses: a broad sense in which fluency functions "as a cover term for oral proficiency" representing the highest level of speaking ability, and a narrow sense wherein fluency is "one, presumably isolatable, component of oral proficiency."

These definitions, taken together, furnish a good starting point for this paper because they include much of what fluency is. However, in my view, a full understanding of fluency must take into account many other factors.

Linguistic Prerequisites for Fluency Development

I argued (Brown, 1995a) that the language teaching profession's view of fluency must be expanded to include a wider array of linguistic tools, choices, and strategies that underlie fluency. While students are learning to use the expanded set of linguistic tools, choices, and strategies, teachers should also provide direct fluency development lessons and practice as part of their students' language learning experience. In a sense, learning the linguistic tools, choices, and strategies is a prerequisite to gaining full fluency. Hence, these tools, choices, and strategies should at least be a corequisite of the fluency development process.

In more detail, fluency development first depends on students acquiring additional *linguistic tools*, tools that go well beyond the knowledge of (a) pronunciation, (b) syntax, and (c) vocabulary that most teachers provide, to also include: (d) suprasegmentals, (e) paralinguistics, (f) proxemics, and (g) pragmatics. Second, fluency development depends on students learning to make *linguistic choices* based on three sets of factors: (a) settings, (b) social, sexual, and psychological roles, as well as (c) register and style. Finally, fluency development depends on students developing their abilities to use six *linguistic strategies*: (a) using speed to their advantage, (b) using pauses and hesitations efficiently, (c) giving appropriate feedback, (d) repairing competently, (e) clarifying effectively, and (f) negotiating for meaning when necessary. (For more details on all of the forgoing, see Brown, 1995a.) Once students start learning about linguistic tools, choices, and strategies, teachers can begin providing fluency development.

Fluency Development Techniques

Fluency development will be defined here as all teaching techniques and practice exercises designed to promote student fluency. (For more on the differences and similarities of *teaching* *techniques* and *practice exercises*, see Chapter 1 of Brown, 1995b.) My experiences in teaching speaking in China and elsewhere convinced me that we can provide the requisite linguistic tools, choices, and strategies as linguistic components of the language at the same time we are supplying fluency development if we: (a) encourage students to make constructive errors, (b) generate many opportunities for students to practice, (c) create activities that force students to focus on getting their meaning across, (d) assess students' fluency not their accuracy, and (e) talk to the students about fluency development.

Encourage Students to Make Constructive Errors. Many students hamper their own fluency development by concentrating fiercely on accurate syntax. Particularly, in the Asian countries where I have worked, students do not want to *lose face* in the eyes of their peers. Making errors is therefore an issue that I have had to address openly and directly with my students. In doing so, I have introduced them to the notion of *constructive errors*, or the idea that errors are a necessary part of communication as well as a useful part of the language learning process. The notion of constructive errors means that students must do three things: (a) learn to make errors (students must learn that it is alright, even necessary to make errors), (b) make errors to learn (students must make errors if they are ever to learn from the errors), and (c) learn how to make errors (students must learn error-making skills)

Learning to make errors. Non-native speakers rarely appreciate the fact that native-speakers make errors as a natural part of using language. Native speakers make pronunciation errors, stress and intonation errors, subject-verb agreement errors, tense errors, etc., though when immersed in natural discourse, they don't even notice such errors unless they interfere with communication. And, even when such interference does occur, the participants can keep the discourse going by using various repair strategies (for more on strategies, see Brown, 1995a). My guess is that, in their native languages, students do the same. However, in a second language, they typically don't allow themselves to make errors. The point I am making is that students need to learn that making production errors is a natural part of all communication, even among native speakers, and that error making is a necessary and useful part of language learning. A student who is afraid to make errors won't make errors, and a student who won't make errors constructively won't be able to develop fluency. For many students, learning to make constructive errors may mean learning to take chances in ways that they have never done before, so teachers may have to guide them.

Making errors to learn. In a sense, teachers need to encourage their students to take a chance on making errors, constructive errors, because only through making errors can students learn to deal with errors on their own. To do this, students need to free themselves of the constraints of careully monitoring their accuracy and focus instead on getting their message across. They must be allowed to make constructive errors in the natural course of communicating in their second language, just as they do in their first language, so they can begin to correct their own particular types of errors and learn from them. That is why I call them constructive errors: they are errors that are a necessary part of learning—a necessary part of becoming fluent.

In many cases, fluency development requires the students to bring their production of the language up to the knowledge that they already have of it. For students to do that effectively, they need to be left alone to practice using what they know for a variety of purposes: to get a message across, to make constructive errors, to correct their own errors, and to gradually bring their productive skills up to an approximation of their linguistic competence. "Fluency, then, can be seen as the maximally effective operation of the language system so far acquired by the student" (Brumfit, 1984, p. 57). At all costs, teachers should avoid yanking students back to an accuracy focus (by doing too much error correction) during periods of fluency development because that may bring the whole process of fluency development to a halt.

Learning how to make errors. If teachers can convince their students that error making is a natural part of all language use and a constructive part of second language learning, then perhaps the students can learn how to make errors appropriately. If so, they will have taken a big step toward becoming fluent. What subskills should students develop in order to strengthen their error-making skills? First, they should learn that making constructive errors is a necessary part of making progress toward fluency. Second, they should learn that errors are a natural part of their language development, not an indication of their lack of worth as human beings. Third, they should develop a willingness to make constructive errors, incorporate construtive errors into their communication, and learn from the errors as they go along. Fourth, they should develop the linguistic strategies outlined in the first part of this paper (using speed to their advantage, using pauses and hesitations efficiently, giving appropriate feedback, repairing competently, clarifying effectively, and negotiating for meaning) as subskills in the error-making process. For many students, learning to make constructive errors may mean not only learning to take chances in ways they have seldom done before, but also learning to use skills that teachers have seldom covered in the past.

Error correction and constructive errors. One thing teachers can to do to encourage constructive errors is to minimize error correction. In fluency development lessons, error correction should at least be limited to those errors which interfere with communication. The students will have their hands full dealing with the constructive errors they are monitoring in their own speech production without the teacher adding to their problems.

Perhaps in some cases, teachers should also hold back on correcting errors that do interfere with communication. Peer correction in pair work or group work may take care of these errors without interference from the teacher, and such correction would be much more natural because it would occur as a natural part of communication. Peer correction would be particularly beneficial if the error caused students to negotiate for meaning—another natural part of communication. My point is that, during fluency development, teachers should certainly not correct errors that do not interfere with communication, and should probably not leap in to correct errors even if those errors interfere with communication. Instead, teachers should probably consider correcting only those errors that cause a complete break down in communication.

Generate Many Opportunities for Students to Practice. In addition to encouraging students to make constructive errors, teachers should provide students with ample opportunities to practice using the language. Students need to practice all aspects of the language in order to become comfortable with using whatever expanded set of linguistic tools, choices, and strategies they have at the moment.

As a profession, we tend to provide such practice in *conversation* classes. My experience with conversation classes is that teachers spend 90 percent of the time talking (while students passively listen) and allow 10 percent of the time for students to talk. Thus in a 50 minute class, five minutes might be allotted for actual student talk. Since that five minutes is often spent in one-on-one teacher-student interactions, dividing five minutes by the number of students will reveal how much talking time each student would get in such a conversation class. In a small class of 10 students, each student might get thirty seconds of precious language production time. And, of course, that time would be reduced dramatically in a class of 20 students, not to mention the conversation classes of 30, 40, 50, or 60 that I have seen in some countries.

To create more opportunities for students to practice producing language, I would suggest that we eliminate *conversation* classes, altogether, and instead, create *speaking* classes, which by definition would be classes in which the teachers must shut their mouths and set up activities which involve many students talking at the same time. Such strategies are difficult for many teachers. We tend to be more comfortable in very controlled teacher-centered situations. Moreover, student-centered activities take a great deal of careful planning. In short, conversation classes are easier for teachers to run than speaking classes, but I strongly feel that we owe our students the practice that a speaking class affords them so they can work on fluency development.

The central issue in creating speaking classes is that teachers must learn how to relinquish control of the class. Many teachers, who were themselves educated in teacher-centered classes, will find it difficult to set up student-centered activities like pair work, group work, role plays, etc. and then simply let the students go. As one student put it (with reference to how I handle group work), "You look like a caged lion roaming aimlessly around the room while students are doing group work." For many of us, letting go in this sense is not easy. In my case, I never know what to do with my hands.

Part of the solution to this problem is for teachers to give themselves a clearly stated purpose in all student-centered activities—perhaps as a cultural informant, source of vocabulary, sympathetic listener, etc. Maybe the teacher will simply move from pair to pair or group to group, not doing error correction, but rather encouraging students to focus on their meanings without worrying about accuracy and errors. My point here is that, while designing activities, teachers should not only plan what the students will be doing, but also how the teacher will fit into the activity.

The situation in Japan deserves some special comment. Many teachers feel that getting Japanese students to participate in any of the above activities is like pulling teeth. However, getting them to participate may not be that difficult if the teacher knows something about Japanese discourse norms. Anderson (1993) made a number of observations that I have found helpful in getting Japanese students to produce language in the classroom. He noticed that communication within the Japanese culture has four key characteristics: "group-mindedness, consensual decision-making, formalized speech-making, and listener responsibility" (p. 104). He went on to argue that EFL teachers can use this knowledge of Japanese communication characteristics to understand and encourage interactions in the EFL classes in Japan. Anderson says that teachers have three options in classrooms in Japan: (a) lecturing, (b) pulling up nails, and (c) blending in. The *blending in* technique may prove particularly useful for getting Japanese students to participate in class. As Anderson describes it, the *blending in* technique combines the Japanese need for group-mindedness with the need for consensual decision-making in pairwork or group work by assigning group members roles of *leader, secretary,* and *spokesperson*, and by having the spokesperson speak for the group (which must first have built a consensus), or by creating competitions between groups. A quick look at Anderson's article will benefit any teacher in Japan, but will prove particularly useful for those teachers who want to foster fluency development in their classes by creating effective practice opportunities.

Create Activities That Focus Students on Getting Their Meaning Across. When I was teaching fluency development in China fifteen years ago, we had to create almost all our activities from scratch. Fortunately, nowadays, teachers have numerous resources to fall back on (for instance, see Sadow, 1982; Klippel, 1987; Fried-Booth, 1988; Ladousse, 1988; Bailey & Savage, 1994). Whether selecting fluency development activities from books or creating new activities, teachers should remember that fluency development activities will work best if the students are focused on getting their meaning across. In China, our *intermediate speaking class* consisted of a sequence of pair-work, role-play, and group-work activities (including debates, panels, problem solving, etc.). These activities provided daily opportunities for the students to practice specific functions of the language in environments that were not intimidating. The purpose of the *advanced speaking class* was to prepare students for university seminar situations, so we focused more on group work and individual presentations to class-sized audiences.

Regardless of the types of activities chosen, we provided students with clearly defined goals to achieve or tasks to perform. Although we didn't realize it at the time, we were using what is now called a *task-based* syllabus, and our purpose was to create tasks that maximized the degree to which students focused on getting their meanings across, rather than on the accuracy of their language.

Assess Student's Fluency Not Their Accuracy. Even a teacher who teaches fluency development very effectively during classes may have trouble getting students to cooperate in fluency development if the tests for the class assess the students' accuracy rather than their fluency. For good or ill, students (particularly in Japan) are test-oriented. If a teacher tests the students with multiple-choice grammar tests, the students will prepare for multiple-choice grammar tests, and wonder why the teacher is wasting class time with pair work, group work, etc. However, if a teacher tests the students with role plays, pair work, interviews, etc., those students will prepare for those types of tests. Students may not like these activities, but they will prepare for them. Students are clever, especially when it comes to tests, and teachers should use the energy that students will throw into preparing for tests to coax them into practicing the types of activities that will lead to fluency development.

As a result, teachers should seriously consider creating tests that directly reflect the types of activities that students have been practicing during the semester. For instance, in the intermediate speaking course in China, we didn't use multiple-choice grammar tests; instead, we interviewed the students three times per term. Our course objectives listed 15 of the functions that serve to organize the Gambits series (Keller & Warner, 1979), so the tests were based on these 15 objectives/functions, and we tested all 15 with an activity that students had practiced in class: a taped interview (wherein the students were playing the role of a student in the United States meeting with a professor during office hours).

The interviews were tape-recorded so that scoring could be done at a later time. We used a variety of schemes for scoring the interviews, but the one I remember best required the student's teacher and one other teacher to rate the students for fluency, content, meaning, choice of exponents, and stress/intonation. Each of the five categories had five points possible for a total of 25 points. Notice that we purposely excluded grammatical or phonological accuracy as categories in our scoring scheme because we wanted the students to focus instead on fluently getting their meanings across. Mendelsohn (1992) provides a similar set of criteria that teachers may want to refer to. Mendelsohn allows space for teachers to write notes on phonological and grammatical accuracy but does not directly addressing accuracy in the feedback process.

My point is that tests in a speaking course should be used to mold how students view and practice the language. (For more on how tests can be used in language programs, see Brown 1990 or 1995c.) Certainly, developing sound communicative tests that focus on fluency is difficult and time-consuming, but no more difficult than creating effective communicative teaching materials. Why then would any teacher even think about testing the results of communicative materials with anything other than a communicative test? In short, the message that testing sends to students will thoroughly defeat the teacher's classroom efforts unless a very close match is made between what is being taught and what is tested. Teachers should therefore consider using their testing methods to shape how students think about fluency development in English.

Talk to the Students about Fluency Development. Unfortunately, students don't always like fluency development. For example, early in our program in China, students complained that they didn't like learning from other students (in pair work, group work, etc.) and that they wanted the teachers to lecture on the finer points of English grammar. Students also suggested that we could learn how to do this by watching our Chinese colleagues. Clearly, we needed to explain to our students how our way of teaching could be useful and maybe even valuable to them.

We began by pointing out that the students generally had very high scores on the Michigan grammar tests that we had administered, but relatively low ones in the other skill areas of reading and listening. We also pointed out that the students could not write or speak with any fluency. We then argued that, as a result, we had no choice but to encourage them to stop worrying about grammatical accuracy and turn instead to developing their fluency because their focus on accuracy appeared to be hampering their fluency development.

We also explained what we were trying to accomplish by developing their abilities to use speed to their advantage, to use pauses and hesitations efficiently, to give appropriate feedback, to repair competently, to clarify effectively, and to negotiate for meaning when necessary. We explained why we felt they should take chances and make constructive errors, why they should have many opportunities to practice, why they should participate in activities that focused them on getting their meaning across, why they should have tests that measured fluency rather than accuracy, and why we were talking to them about fluency development. In short, we explained our intentions honestly and openly to our students and respected their ability to understand what we were trying to do—and over time, it worked.

Conclusion

I would like to conclude by suggesting that fluency is not something that students either have or don't have—rather, students acquire fluency by steady degrees. However, they can attain some degree of fluency even during the earliest stages of study. Given this state of affairs, students should gradually be acquainted with the linguistic tools, choices, and strategies they will need to communicate fluently regardless of the level of language proficiency they may have at the moment, and fluency development should be taught from the very beginning.

Unfortunately, fluency development cannot be *taught* in the traditional sense of that word. No doubt we can expand our students' knowledge of linguistic choices, tools, and strategies, and we can encourage students to make constructive errors, create opportunities for practice, create meaning-focused activities, assess fluency not accuracy, and talk to students about fluency development. But sooner or later, we must recognize that fluency development is different from other kinds of teaching. Fluency development means being willing to let go, being willing to allow the students do the work, being willing to set up situations in which fluency will develop, and then being willing to simply encourage communication.

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コロキアム「学習者ディベロプメント：3つのデザイン」

Learner Development: Three Designs

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このコロキアムの目的は、学習者の成長を促すための工夫をどのようにカリキュラムの中に活かしていけるかを考察することにあった。教師は、学習者が効果的に学ぶことができるよう、どのようなことができるのか、また、それをカリキュラムの中にどう反映したらよいのか、それぞれの発表者の研究テーマに基づいて実際的な試みや提案が紹介された。

吉竹の発表では、受験のための英語を勉強してきた学習者に、大学レベルの活動ができる英語を学ばせるために、英語の論理的構成に着目させ、それを身に付けさせる試みとその効果が述べられた。衣川の発表では、上級の日本語学習者が文を書くときに使用する構想、文章化、見直しという三つの過程におけるさまざまな方略が分析され、作文教育への応用方法が示された。浜田の発表では、やはり、日本語教育での場合を例に、学習者の誤用を分析し、誤用が学習者の学習意欲をそぐことのないように、むしろ、学習者自身が誤用を学習リソースとして活用できるようにするための活動が具体的に紹介された。

どの発表も、いかに学習者自身の意欲を高め、その成長を助けることができるのかを限られたカリキュラムの中で効果的に実践する可能性を示してくれ、学習者と共に教師として成長していこうとする私達の励ましとなるものだった。

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「作文、聴解、口頭発表：
英語の論理構成に着目したの指導方法」

1 はじめに

EAP(English for Academic Purposes)を意識した英語の教授法を模索していくうちに、英語の論理構成に着目した指導方法にたどり着いた。学習者がEAPを学ぼうとする時、英語の一般的な論理構成を意識する習慣を身に付けているかどうかで、その学習者が書く論文の質だけでなく、聴き取れる大学の講義の量や、人前での発表が効果的にできる可能性はかなり左右されるのである。

2 アカデミック・ライティングを目指して

一つのパラグラフより大きい単位のライティングの授業は学習者に主題を与え、その主題についていわゆるブレイン・ストーミングをする事からはじまるのが一般的である。教師は学習者から出てくる項目や意見を板書し、それぞれを結び付けて小論にまとめていくが、その後に、論理構成が言語によって異なることに言及する必要があるのではないか。学習者の母語である日本語と目標言語である英語との論理構成の違いを紹介し、指導すると、実際「どうして自由に書いてはいけないのか。」と聞く学生も出てくる。そんな時には「自分の考えを日本文化を有している人にのみ伝えるのであれば英語で書く必要はないのではないか。」と答える。英語で書く以上英語の伝統に基いた文章の構成にしなくてはせっかく書いても考えが正確に伝達できない。

文レベルのライティングの指導とより長いアカデミック・コンポジションを書くライティングの指導との間の”掛け橋”となるべくアウエアネス・アクティビティーを提案して見たい。まず英語の代表的な論理構成（命題の立証、主題の描写、例示、分類又は区分、比較・対照、手順又は順序、因果関係、定義）の簡単な説明と論理構成の枠組みを視覚的に線や矢印で示したプリントを用意する。

授業の手順：1）その日に指導する論理構成のプリントをOHPで見せて説明する。2）学生がある程度精通している主題を取り上げる。3）クラスを小グループにわけて、グループごとに主題についてのブレイン・ストーミングを行う。4）その後、クラス全体で主題に関する見解、事実、意見などを募り、それらを箇条書きにしていく。5）再び小グループに分かれて、黒板のどの事柄をどう使うかを決めてから、教師が配布した論理構成の枠組みのプリントを埋めていく。6）グループの作業が終ったら、教師がＯＨＰで例を一つ示す。7）教師の例とは違った学生の案があれば、クラス全体に紹介する。代表的な英語の論理構成の指導が終ったら、七種類の論理構成のプリントを全部使って、学生がものを書く前に独力で適切な論理構成が選択できうようになるために、知識の再構築をするとよいだろう。その時はブレイン・ストーミングの後、小グループで話し合い、小論を書くとしたらどの構成でまとめるかを決めさせる。そして最後にどの論理構成の枠組みをどのように使ったかを報告し合う。

こうすることによって学習者は単語の適切さ、文法、文の構造などに全く頭を悩ませる事なく英語の論理構成と取り組むことができるのである。

3 アカデミック・リスニング

英語での情報を耳から入れる場合は書いてあるものを読むのとは少し違う。目でみることができるならば辞書を引くこともできるし、同じパラグラフを読み直すこともでき、又導入がどこで始まり、結論はどこからかも明らかである。しかし英語で講義を聴く場合はそうはいかない。いきなり数々の意味不明の単語が出てきたとしよう。学生は絶望的になりかねない。しかし英語の構成についての認識をもっていれば、あきらめずに談話の特徴に注意を向け、聴き取る努力を続けるだろう。

いろいろなディスコース・キューを聴きとる訓練としては、パラグラフ内でミクロ・ストラクチャーとして論理構成がしっかり使われている部分をレクチャーの中から選び、構成の枠組みを示したプリントにノートテーキングをさせる。これをいろいろな論理構成で繰り返す。その都度エヌメレーター(kinds, aspects, elements,...)とリスティング・シグナル(First of all, Next, Finally,...)に注意を向けて聴き取る訓練をつむ。その後レクチャー全体を使ってマクロ・ストラクチャーとしての論理構成を聴き取る練習に進む。最初のうちは論理構成が分かるプリントを埋める形で聴き取り、慣れてくれば白紙にノート・テーキングをさせてみる。ある程度力が付けば、実際の大学の講義のシミュレーションへと展開させていく。つまり、授業中に英語の疑似講義を聴き、ノートをとる。その後そのノートに基づいて講義内容のテストを受けるのである。この場合の疑似講義は実際の講義をビデオにとってそれを１５分ぐらいの長さにまとめて使う。その時くれぐれも講演者の許可を得てその講義の主旨が壊れないように注意して短くまとめる。国際基督教大学ではネーティブスピーカーの英語教師に客員教授になったつもり

で疑似講義をしてもらったビデオも使っている。

4　パブリック・スピーキング

スピーチ・コンテストの準備ならばスピーチの内容とデリバリーの指導が中心になるだろう。しかし、人前で発表する場合は聴衆とのインターアクションを保ちながら要旨をしっかり伝える必要があるのである。まず、教師は論理構成がしっかりした、学生のレベルに合った新聞記事をいくつか持ち込んで、二人一組の学生に記事を一つ選ばせる。学生はそれぞれその記事を基にして論理構成を示したノート・テーキング用プリントを作成して配布する。二人で１５分の持ち時間内でとにかく内容を正確に伝えてクラスメートがプリントを埋られるようにする。聴き手であるクラスメートの要望に応じて専門用語の板書もしながら進める。熱心にノートをとっているクラスメートに話すのだからデリバリーは特に教えなくても発表者が下を向いてメモを読む心配もない。情報の伝達に全力投球せねばならない状況だからである。

これは聞き手の学生にしても枠組みが与えられて埋めていく作業なので、自分がどれ位聞き取れたか、そして聞き取れなかった部分に対しても質問するに値するメイン・ポイントのひとつなのかどうかも一目瞭然である。論理構成の枠組みに沿って話されるのでお手上げ状態になることはないどころか、先を予測する力も養われていく。

5　終りに

以上、レトリカル・アプローチを提唱し、英語の論理構成に注意をむけた三種類の授業を紹介した。２はICUの授業用に筆者が開発したものである(Yoshitake, 1994)。３の効果の分析についてはYoshitake & Nicosia (1993)を参照されたい。又、４は津田塾大学のハマート氏の授業で試みさせて頂いたものである。

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「課題が文章産出過程に与える影響について」

1　研究課題

「意見を述べてください」という課題（意見文課題）と「反対意見を持つ人を説得するような文章を書いてください」という課題（説得文課題）の差が、上級日本語学習者の文章産出過程と話題に対する認識にどのような影響を与えるかを分析したものである。

2　資料収集方法

文章産出過程を分析するための資料は、主に発話思考法を用いて名古屋大学大学院文学研究科に在籍する留学生６人から収集された。発表では課題によって文章産出過程に大きな変化が見られた中国語を母語とする書き手１名が事例として取り上げられた。

3　分析の結果

第一文を書きはじめる前のプラニングの特徴には課題間で類似性があることが示された。その特徴とは、書き手が課題から話題などの要素を抽出し、それらの要素をもとに自分自身に問いかけ、その答を探す過程で文章に書くべき内容を引き出すというものである。

次に、文章産出中に観察されたプラニングと見直しには課題間で差があることが示された。意見文課題では、一つの段落を書き終えた時点で、次の段落で何を書くかを考えているのに対して、説得文課題では段落を書き終えるたびに、文章内容の一貫性が検討され、その上でプランを立てていることが示された。これは説得文課題を示された書き手が「反対者を説得するために、メリットを説明し、デメリットを否定するという説得スキーマ（杉本, 1991）」を想起し、この説得スキーマが文章産出の方向性を生みだすためだという推測も提示された。

また、意見文課題では主に表層的な正確さに焦点を当てた修正が行われるのに対して、説得文課題では表層的な修正だけではなく内容的な推敲も行われていることが示された。この相違点は、意見文課題では「次に何を書くか」が意識の中心であるため、自分が表現したい内容を正確に伝えているかどうかが修正の引き金となるのに対して、説得文課題では説得スキーマが示す方向性に従って文章内容の一貫性を保つという「推敲の基準」が確立されたために生じたのではないかという解釈が示された。

4　評価との関係

さらに文章産出過程の差が、書き上げた文章の評価にどのような影響を与えるかも検討された。まず、Scardamalia & Bereiter（1987）が示した初心者の文章産出過程のモデルと意見文課題の文章産出過程に類似点があること、熟練した書き手の文章産出過程のモデルと説得文の文章産出過程に類似点があることから、説得文の方が意見文よりも評価が高いのではないかという予想が述べられた。そして、その予想を検証するために日本語教師23名が行った文章の評価結果が提示された。その結果は、予想に反して説得文の方が評価が低いというものであった。その原因として、説得スキーマによって示された文章の方向性を守るために、書き手が書きたい内容を避け安全な話題を選んだことが逆に評価を下げたのではないかという解釈が述べられた。

5　認識との関係

話題に対する認識を分析するための資料は、主に事後インタビューによって収集された。分析の結果、意見文を書くことで話題に対する認識の変化は観察されなかったが、説得文を書くことによって話題に対して意見の変更を迫られていることが示された。読み手を説得するためには、自分の価値観を一方的に述べるだけでなく、相手の価値観を検討し、そのデメリットを述べることが求められる。相手のデメリットを述べるためには相手の視点から物事を見たり、自分自身の価値観や視点を再検討する必要にせまられる。この「再検討する」という過程を通して話題に対する認識の深まりが起こるのだという原因の解釈も示された。

6　分析結果の作文教育への三つの応用

第一に、作文の課題として説得文課題を与える効果が示された。作文指導の際「読み手や文章の目的をよく考えて書きなさい」という教示が与えられることがある。これは、読み手がどのような知識を持っており、その文章をどのように理解し、理解した結果どのような行動をとるのかを考慮した上で文章を書けば、読み手に理解しやすい文章になる可能性が高くなるからである。しかし実際にこのような教示を与えても、学習者にとってはそれを行うことはむずかしい。その原因の一つに教室内での「読み手」は教師であり、「文章の目的」は練習のためであるという暗黙の了解事項があるからであろう。したがって「読み手や文章の目的を考えながら書く」ことを学習者が意識するためには、ただ「考えなさい」というよりは、意見の対立するクラスメートを具体的な読み手として設定し、その読み手を説得するという目的を与えることの方が効果的であるという提案がなされた。

第二に、説得課題を用いた「異文化理解を促進する」ためのプログラム例が示された。これは学習者が自分の価値観、態度、視点がどれほど背景文化に影響されているかに気づき、他者の持つ文化的背景を理解することを目的としたプログラムである。この目的を達成するためには、自分自身の価値観や視点を再検討する必要に迫られる説得文の産出を学習者に課すことが効果的であることが具体例に基づいて紹介された。

第三に、グループで話し合いながら、一つの作文を書きあげるという共同作文の提案が行われた。第一文を書きはじめる前のプラニングの特徴として、「問いかけ」によって自己内対話が始まるという分析結果が示されたが、グループ内でお互いに質問を投げかけ、それに対する答を探す活動を行ってからプランを立てることは、より多角的な視点から問題を検討する機会を学習者に与えることができる。さらに、グループのメンバーがその場に存在する読み手となることにより、どのような内容や文章構成や表現がいいのか、どうしていいのかという読み手のフィードバックがリアルタイムで得られる。このような議論を行いながら一つの文章をグループで書き進めていくことは推敲の基準を認識する機会を多くする効果もあるということが述べられた。

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「誤用の用ー日本語教育での場合-」

1　はじめに

外国語学習は、実用レベルに達するには、教室（コース）を離れても継続されるものであり教室（コース）では完結しない。従って、教室での学習段階から自主性、自律性を育む主体的な学習法を身

につけることが望ましい。このような観点に立つと、誤用は決して恥ずかしいものではなく、貴重な学習リソースとなるものである。本稿では、学習者ディベロプメントの観点から誤用の扱いを考察し、誤用をどう生かせるかその方法と留意点を概観する。

2　誤用の種類

まず、日本語での誤用を概観すると、例えば、次のようなものがある。

(1)こつものように
(2)ざんれんですれえ
(3)白転車
(4)安いになりました
(5)友達と会いて話しました
(6)学から卒業しました
(7)京都に行きました。と、映画を見ました
(8)明日もう一度雨です
(9)スキ(スキー)
(10)ななの(ながの)

(1)、(2)、(3)は表記の誤用であり、(4)から(8)までは文法・語彙面の誤用であり、(9)と(10)は聞き取りの誤用である。このように誤用には、色々なものがあり、品詞別、技能別、言語単位別等に分類が可能であるが、学習リソースとしての誤用を考える場合は、むしろ原因別の分類、つまり、不注意によるものか、母語の干渉によるものか、既習項目からの類推によるものか、安易な二国語辞書への依存によるものか等の分類が重要である。その他にも、個別的か一般的か一時的か継続的かの違いも把握しなければならない。

3　誤用に対する学習者の意識

それでは、学習者はこのような誤用をどのように意識しているのだろうか。背景・能力レベルを異にする成人学習者15名にアンケートを行ったところ、その調査結果から次のような点が観察された。

- 間違いを気にする学習者の方が多い。
- 間違いを恥ずかしく思う学習者も思わない学習者もいる。
- 学習期間、恥ずかしいかどうか等に関わらず、学習者はクラスの内外で間違いを直してもらいたがっている。
- ただし、いつどこで直すのがいいかは学習者によって違う。
- 教師は適度に誤用の訂正を行っている。
- テストでの間違いは後の学習に活かしている。

要するに、学習者の間違いを単に直すか直さないかではなく、いつどこでどのように何を直すかが重要であると言える。

4　誤用訂正の位置づけ

誤用を学習に生かすには、まずコース開始前のオリエンテーション等で学習者が誤用の用を十分理解できるようにしておいた方がいい。また、間違いを頭ごなしに直したり不用意に直したりすると、学習者のプライドが傷つけられせっかくのやる気を損なう恐れもあるので、情意面への配慮が最優先されなければならない。その意味でも、学習者自身が訂正出来るようにするのがいい。Edge(1989)は、望ましい訂正として自己訂正＞仲間訂正＞教師訂正の順で挙げている。また、練習目的とタイプによっても訂正の仕方を工夫しなければならない。例えば、ロールプレイ、タスク等でコミュニケーション中心の練習の場合、コミュニケーションに支障が起きない限り、その流れを損なわないように途中での訂正は控え、後でフィードバックし練習した方がいい。一方、初級レベルでの形中心の練習で繰り返し現れる誤用の場合、すみやかな訂正が望ましい。

以上の留意点を優先順位順に並べると次のようになる。

情意面＞コミュニケーションの成立＞気づき＞一般的継続的誤用＞個別的一時的誤用

つまり、まず学習者の情意面を優先し、コミュニケーションの成立(Edge,1989)に支障をきたす誤用かどうか判断し、学習者自身がその誤用に気づくように導き、それでも誤用が残る場合、一般的継続的な誤用を優先して訂正する。

5　誤用の用を意識した具体的活動例

次に、上記留意点をふまえ誤用の用を意識した活動例を紹介する。

(1)クラス内

- 聞き返し、聞こえなかったふりをして学習者の気づきを促す。
- 確認、繰り返し（「～ですか。」とか「～ですね。」という形で）。
- 間違い箇所の直前で確認を止め学習者の反応を待つ。
- 作文の場合、間違い箇所に下線を引き、返却し学習者自身が訂正する。

- クラス全体で誤用項目を練習する。
- 観察にとどめメモしておき、後でフィードバックする。
- テープにとっておき、個人指導の時一緒に聞き直す。
- 誤用をジェスチャー、文字利用等で、視覚化する。(Edge,1989)

2)クラス外

- アンケートを活用する（誤用の用の意識化）。
- 学習者カルテを作成する（学習者と教師双方）。
- 観察日記への誤用の記録を奨励する。

6　おわりに

以上、誤用を学習リソースとして活用するために、まず、誤用自体を概観し、次に学習者が誤用をどのように意識しているか観察し、誤用訂正の留意点、その留意点をふまえた具体的活動例を紹介した。このような立場では、教師の役割も学習支援者としての役割がより大きくなり、評価の役割も単なる成績付けのためではなく学習診断・方向付けのためのものとなる。また、誤用を生かす活動のある部分はCALL等コンピュータの利用に委ねられるかもしれない。

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（この部分の文責：浜田盛男）

望ましい教師像と教室活動のアンケート調査：学習者中心のクラスに向けて

Desirable Japanese Teachers and Classroom Activities: A Survey Towards a Learner-centred Classroom

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0 はじめに

山口県における山口県国際交流協会主催の「日本語教室」は岩国、徳山、萩、山口、宇部、下関の6会場で開かれている。教室は学習者には無料で公開されているが、日本語講師には講師料が支払われており、無報酬のボランティア教室とは性質を異にする。さらに、県内には営利目的の日本語学校がなく、日本語教師の資格や十分な教授経験を持ったものでも日本語教師という職業に従事できないため、地域の外国人に対する日本語教育熱は高い。教育機関外の人的・社会的環境を学習のリソースとする地域の「日本語教室」は学習者の自立学習、自律学習を可能にするものであると捉えられる（春原、1992; 田中、1993b）が、こうした可能性を現実のものとするためには、まず山口県の人的リソースバンクといえる「日本語教室」をより体系化し、学習環境を整えていく必要があるだろう。

山口県の「日本語教室」では、学習環境のソフト面の改善を試みており、1994年に講師の一人である山見氏が考案したニーズ分析シートを、各教室で活用し始めている。そこには学習者のニーズをシラバスに反映させ、「教師中心主義」の日本語教室運営から「学習者中心主義」（田中, 1993a）へ移行していこうという意図がうかがる。しかし、ニーズ分析をしてコース・デザインを改善しているからといって、それは教師が学習者の立場になって考え、コース・デザインやシラバスを作成しているに過ぎない。教師と学習者それぞれが第二言語の学習をどのようなものと捉えているかを明確にしなければ、実際の教室活動や講師と学習者の関係の中に存在するかもしれない問題は見えてこないであろう。本研究では山口県における日本語教室に焦点を当て、アンケートによるデータをもとに、学習者の考える教師観、授業観と日本語講師の教師観、授業観を比較した。

1. 研究調査

1−1 対象者

山口県国際交流協会主催の日本語教室に参加している中上級レベルの学習者78名と日本語講師38名。学習者の国籍の内訳は、中国20、アメリカ16、フィリピン11、韓国8、イギリス4、カナダ3、ペルー2、インド、エジプト、台湾、ニュージーランド、日本、ネパール、パラグアイ、ハンガリー、バングラデシュ、フランス、ロシア各1 であった。日本語講師の職業の内訳は、主婦7 、会社員（パートを含む）5 、無色3 、日本語講師2 、塾講師（パートを含む）2 、短大講師、ピアノ教師、司書、法人役員、大学

生、フリーター、各1、無記入13であった。

1−2　予備調査

アンケート作成にあたり、質問項目の問い方や内容が妥当であるかどうか、クリエイティブセンター山口日本語教授法講座の受講生の方々にアンケートを試行していただいた後、ご意見をいただいた。

1−3　調査方法

学習者と日本語講師にアンケート調査を実施した。学習者用アンケート調査は日本語版、英語版、中国語版を作成し、学習者に選択してもらった。日本語版にはルビをふるなど、学習者が理解しやすいように工夫したが、理解できない点は各教室の日本語講師が補足説明を加えた。

2. 調査結果

本稿では紙数の都合上、アンケートの質問項目の中から「あなたにとって一般的に言って理想的な『いい日本語の先生』とはどんな先生ですか？」と「どのような教室活動が役に立つと思いますか？」の二つの質問への回答だけを紹介する。それぞれ選択項目が15あり、そのうちの5項目を選んでもらった。

(1) あなたにとって一般的に言って理想的な「いい日本語の先生」とはどんな先生ですか？

表1-1　学習者が選んだ上位5項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 授業の準備をきちんとしている（52）
2. 授業に色々な工夫をする（48）
3. 色々な幅広い知識を持っている（39）
4. 学習者の質問にすぐ適切に答える（36）
5. 自信を持って教えている（32）

表1-2　講師が選んだ上位5項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 授業の準備をきちんとしている(30)
1. 授業に色々な工夫をする（30）
3. 学習者の質問にすぐ適切に答える（26）
4. 色々な幅広い知識を持っている（24）
5. 学習者の文化を理解しようとしている（20）

学習者と講師が「いい日本語の先生」としてあげた項目は上位1番目と2番目の項目が一致している。選択した学習者が3番目に多かった項目は「色々な幅広い知識を持っている」であり、これは講師の方では第4番目になっている。また選択した学習者が4番目に多かった項目は「学習者の質問にすぐ適切に答える」であり、講師の方では3番目になっている。「自信をもって教えている」は講師は、38人中9名が選んだだけであるが、学習者は、第5位選択で重要な項目と見なされていることがわかる。講師が選んだ中で5番目に多かった項目は「学習者の文化を理解しようとしている」であり、学習者の選んだ上位5項目には入っていなかったが、78名中22名が選んでいる。

表1-3　学習者が選ばなかった下位4項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 大学を出ている（3）
2. 外国語を勉強している（7）
3. 日本語教師の資格を持っている（8）
4. 教えるための研修を受けている(9)

表1-4　講師が選ばなかった下位4項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 日本語教師の資格を持っている（0）
1. 大学を出ている（0）
3. 日本語を教えた経験が長い(1)
3. 英語・中国語等の外国語が上手に話せる（1）

表1−3、1−4が示す下位項目を見ると、両者とも大学の学位や日本語教師の資格は「いい日本語の先生」であることの条件ではないと考えていることがわかる。また、学習者がほとんど選択しなかった「外国語を勉強している」という項目は、講師側も38名中7名が選んだにとどまっている。しかし、講師がほとんど選ばなかった「日本語を教えた経験が長い」と「英語・中国語等の外国語が上手に話せる」を、学習者ではそれぞれ25名と23名が選んでおり、学習者は比較的重要な要素であると捉えていることがわかる。さらに、学習者は「教えるための研修を受けている」ことを、必要条件ではないと考えている。しかし、一方では、「学習者の質問にすぐ答える」や「授業に色々な工夫をする」ことを非常に大切であると考えている。確かに「研修」を受けるだけでは、これらの期待に応えることになるとは言えないが、「研修」を受けることはこれらの期待に応え、より専門性を追求していくためには必要であろうと考えられるから、学習者が重要視していないから研修の必要はないという議論は成り立たないであろう。

(2)
どのような教室活動が役に立つと思いますか？

教室活動はその有益度が学習者の日本語能力のレベルによって異なることも考えられる。したがって、学習者と日本語講師の条件を統一するために、学習者が中上級者であったので、日本語講師のデータも中上級担当の講師の回答のみを集計した。該当する日本語講師は14名であるが、有効回答数は12であった。

表2-1　学習者が選んだ上位5項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 文法説明（55）
2. 練習問題（36）
3. 繰り返し練習／ドリル(35)
4. 発音練習（31）
5. 教科書や新聞を読む（27）
5. 自由に話す／フリートーク(27)

表2-2　講師（中上級クラス）が選んだ上位5項目（かっこ内は選択した人の数）

1. 繰り返し／ドリル（9）
1. 役割練習／ロールプレイ（9）
3. 文法の説明（6）
4. テープを聞く（5）
4. 練習問題（5）
4. 討論／ディスカッション（5）

学習者は第1位に「文法説明」を選んでいるが、講師は第3位である。また、学習者が「練習問題」を第2位に選択しているが、講師は第4位に選択している。さらに学習者が第3位に選んだ「繰り返し練習／ドリル」は講師側は役に立つとし第1位項目となっている。

以上の3項目に、すでに順位にずれがあるが、表3-1と3-2では異なる項目が5つ見られる。まず、講師全員が選び第1位項目になった「役割練習／ロールプレイ」は、学習者は15名が選んだに過ぎず、役に立つとはあまり思っていないようだ。ロールプレイは情報や活動がコントロールされてはいるが、学習者がある程度自由な言語活動を行える有意義な練習であるとされている(Littlewood, 1981)。講師側には実際の生活現場での疑似体験としてロールプレイが役に立つ活動であるという認識があるのだろうが、学習者があまり価値を見いだしていないのはなぜだろうか。講師がロールプレイとしている教室活動が、ダイアローグを読む練習をしているだけで、シナリオプレイで終わっている可能性もある。また、ロールプレイの活動における講師の指導の仕方や場面設定、ロールカードの書き方に問題があるのかもしれない。学習者に、ロールプレイが有効な言語学習活動であることを、いかに体験し理解してもらうかが、今後の課題であろう。

また、学習者は第4位に「発音練習」をあげているが、講師の方では2名が選んだのみである。講師は中上級クラスということで、個々の発音の正確さよりも流暢さを重視しているのかもしれない。これに対して、学習者はよりネイティブに近い自然な日本語を話すために発音指導が役に立つと考えているのかもしれない。さらに、学習者はクラス全体での発音練習というより、個別の発音クリニックを期待しているのかもしれない。一方、講師としては、まず「聞き分け」ができるようになり、次の段階として「発話」ができるようになるのが言語習得の段階であると考えて、「発音練習」よりも「テープを聞く」（講師第4位選択）を選んでいるとも考えられる。学習者も「テープを聞く」という活動は役に立つとは思っているようで、上位5項目には入ってはいないが、22名が選んでいる。

さらに、講師が1名しか選択しなかった「教科書や新聞を読む」という活動は学習者にとっては、有益であると考えられている。実際に新聞が読めるレベルに学習者があるかないかに拘わらず、新聞を読めるようになることは多くの日本語学習者にとっての到達目標である。実際に生の新聞を教材として使うには無理があるクラスの場合、講師が学習者用に書き直して使用したり、比較的易しい日本語で書かれている投書欄等を教材に選んだり、語彙表を付ける等の工夫が必要となる。さらに、新聞教材をディスカッションやタスクの材料として使用すれば学習者により深い満足を与えられるのではないだろうか。

また、学習者は「自由に話す／フリートーク」を第5位項目として選択しているが、講師は3名が選択したのみである。しかし、テーマを選択した「ディスカッション」に関しては講師は第5位項目に選択している。ただ単におしゃべりをするというよりも、テーマを設定して、意義のある活動をしたいと考えている講師の配慮がうかがえる。しかし、学習者は日本で生活しているからとは言え、日本語を話す機会が必ずしも多いわけではない。いつも母語話者同士で行動している、一言も日本語を話さなくても買い物ができる、周囲の日本人が英語を使って話したがる等、日本にいても予想外に日本語を使わな

い環境にいる学習者もいる。このような学習者にとって、日本語を使ってコミュニケーションのできる日本語教室は大切な日本語学習の場である。また、自分のことを話したい、ストレスを発散したいという学習者にとって、「フリートーク」は役に立つ活動なのかもしれないと言える。

3. 考察

アンケート調査結果を分析して、学習者と講師の間に存在する日本語教師のあるべき姿や教室活動に関する考えの相違が明らかになった。山口県ではボランティア教室が唯一の体系化された日本語学習の場であることから、外国人にとって日本語講師が果たすべき役割は大きい。学習者が日本語講師に専門性を求めていることは明らかであり、今後講師がそれをどのような形で追求していくかが大きな課題であろう。

そのための方法の一つとして、講師自身の教授活動に関する自己モニター能力を活性化することが考えられる。伊東（1993：127）は、「発表（授業）を聞いた人々の反応が、表現する（教える）という問題解決の成功・不成功を示し、それらの反応は表現（教え方）を改善するきっかけと方向性を提供する」と言っている。つまり、教師が教えながら学習者の反応を見て、教え方を自分で改善していくことが大切であるということである。もちろん、自己観察が常に正しいとは言えない。従って、日本語教室を改善は、学習者の意見を客観的に分析することが可能な紙面調査の結果と平行して検討していくべきであろう。

「学習者中心主義」を唱えても、常に学習者の言うとおり、望むとおりに教室運営や教授活動を行える訳ではないし、その必要のないこともある。講師個々人が考える「学習者中心主義」も様々である。教室ごとにどのような「学習者中心主義」を取っていくべきなのか、教育理念を確認し合い、大枠で一貫性をもたせる必要があるのではないだろうか。

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Identity and Beliefs in Language Learning

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Each mind is made up of widely distributed, massively interconnected, simultaneously operating constellations of parallel processing. Attitudes, beliefs, and identities help determine to a great extent skill development and behavioral change. Ignoring them would be similar to a farmer who only concentrated on planting and ignored the seasons, the latitude, the altitude, and the irrigation needed.

Many teachers already pay great attention to identity and beliefs. However, I suspect many others do not. I would like to offer a framework for understanding identity and beliefs, their influences and the means of their formation and transformation. Secondly I would like to offer several examples of activities that address different levels for learners yet have the potential to spread and activate other levels for more coherent learning (change). I would like to show how the framework can be used to sort out how activities place us, for the length of the activity at least, into a certain set of beliefs and identity. Finally, I would like to invite other teacher-researchers to share those tasks that they have that promote proactive beliefs and identities

When I was a student in Switzerland, I was a pretty good tennis player and so I was hired to teach tennis part time, although I had never taught it. The first day I brought the children up to the net and told them to hold their rackets up in front of their faces. I hit the ball to them and because they were right next to the net the ball would come back over to me if they even touched the ball. In this way we were having exchanges from the very first moment they got on the court and they loved it. They fell in love with tennis and they were enjoying what seasoned players enjoyed most, rallying and interacting for a long period with the ball. They got a taste of "being a tennis player" and they developed a belief that "I can do this" because they already had "done it." Now, you may be wondering what this story has to do with language learning.

Part I: A Framework: Logical Levels of Learning

Anthropologist Gregory Bateson identified four basic levels of learning and change - each level more abstract than the level below it; and the higher the level, the more impact on the individual (Dilts 1994). These levels roughly correspond to:

a. Who I Am - Identity (Mission and Purpose) *Who?*
b. My Belief System - Values and Meanings *Why?*
c. My Capabilities - Strategies and States *How?*
d. What I Do or Have Done - Specific Behaviors *What?*
e. My Environment - External Constraints *Where? When?*

Using the analogy "Give a man a fish and he may live for a day; teach him how to fish and he can live for a life time" we can see that "eating a fish" is at the behavioral level and "learning how to fish" is at the level of capability, similar to "learning how to learn" which has become popular in our field in recent years. When we go further up, you can imagine what it would be like to inspire in this fish-man with the belief that he not only could learn to fish, but also to hunt, farm, ranch, or build a business if he chooses. Supporting such beliefs might be an identity of himself as a learner, as someone who has potential and is a valuable person.

A language learner might express these levels in the following way:

- I am (not) an English speaker. *Identity*
- It's good (bad) to speak English. *Beliefs*
- I (don't) know how to speak English. *Capability*
- I (don't) do what my teacher says. *Behavior*
- School is part of my *Environment.*

Starting from the bottom and going up, we could say that we send students to school and put them in a certain Environment. In this environment we hope to cultivate certain Behaviors. Sometimes when students behave a certain way long enough they develop the strategies and states that give them the Capability to reproduce language regularly. This is the bet of organized education, that it will create skills faster than other less organized activities outside of school. Sometimes this happens and sometimes it doesn't. My guess is that when it happens it is because either students already come with supporting beliefs and identities ("I can learn" and "I am a learner") or teachers intuitively provide an environment where they can cultivate supportive identities and beliefs that make the learning of skills and behavior more possible (Some fields are naturally fertile while others need fertilizing. And it's also nice to plant in season and with proper irrigation. Plant while the planting is good!).

Part II: Using the Framework

Using this framework, I have previously written about the power of role models and metaphors to inspire great changes in language learners' "possible identities" (Murphey, 1995). Telling a story of a specific successful language learner who did things a different way can inspire supportive beliefs, increase skill development, proactive behavior, and all of this in a wider environment than merely school. My experience is that stories are much more effective than telling students they "should."

Using the logical levels framework it is also possible to look at skills and tasks and ask what kind of beliefs and identities they inspire in my students at their levels. Tasks that are too far beyond their present competence may inspire beliefs that "I can't" and inspire the sub-identity of the insecure school child. Tasks that can actually be accomplished and are similar to what native speakers will inspire "I can" beliefs and more positive identities.

For example, learning the skill of shadowing (repeating what one hears silently in your head, or out loud, completely or partially) may allow them to have a feeling for how natives actually talk and allow them to participate much more. This is a low risk activity and gets students to model and identify with the speakers.

Mentions, speaking with one or two word utterances (Murphey 1994), is a similar skill that even beginning students can learn and when they do it they feel like real speakers of the language. Mentions corresponds to my tennis teaching story at the beginning of this article. The new tennis students were interacting with the ball, having exchanges, just like tennis lovers do. With mentions, students can have long interactions just like natives do and use the language for real communication from the first day they walk in. Although the activity is at the level of skill or behavior, it is such a powerful one that it creates very positive beliefs that "I can use this language already" and "It's fun speaking English" and "I am an English speaker!"

Invitation to Research

The goal of my presenting the framework in part one and these short examples in part two is to encourage other teachers to experiment and discover other such performative tasks and activities that will have a big impact upon our students. I know I want more and I want others to share them with me.

I would like to collaborate with more teachers on finding and describing tasks that meet certain criteria for the possibility of changing limiting beliefs and restrictive identities for our students. Another example of such an activity would be asking students to ask three different foreigners for the time over a period of several weeks and to write a report of what happened. It is a simple thing and often very challenging for those who have never done it. It also changes a lot of their beliefs about foreigners and themselves.

Some of the performative task criteria that might be applicable and need testing and verification by teachers may correspond to the following levels:

Environment: It's possible to do it in every day life.

Behavior : It's actually physically easy and possible (e.g. asking the time of foreigners).

Capability: Doing the task shows that they can do it (have the ability to) and at the same time improves their ability to do it.

Beliefs: The task challenges limiting beliefs and presents options.

Identity: A person's identity-map may be broadened, or opened up, by the possibility of new beliefs.

Tasks could also be subject to questions concerning ecology. For example, "Do they have a high chance of success?" Asking the time does have a high chance of success, especially if done three times.

By the way, the children I taught tennis to at the net the first day and who got hooked on it because of the immediate interaction that took place, they became very resilient players, capable of working long hard hours to perfect their strokes with excitement as their source of energy. They could do this because they had already had a taste of the what it was like to "be" a player.

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グループ体験を通して学ぶ日本語
Japanese Language Learning Through Structured Group Encounters

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1　はじめに

本稿では、グループ体験を通して日本語学習を進めるためには、どうしたらいいかを考察したい。各種のエクササイズを遂行しながら、心とこころのふれあいを深め、学習者の成長を図ろうとするグループ体験である構成的グループ・エンカウンター（Structured Group Encounters　以下SGE）を基本的な枠組みとして設定したい。エンカウンター・ムーブメントの母体の一つは、ロジャーズのエンカウンター・グループとその理論である。ロジャーズ（1984：136）は、人間中心の教室にいる学習者はよく学習し、よりよい行動をすると述べている。その理由は、学習者自身が自分を自己指導の能力があるものと考え、自己の感情と価値を教師に尊重されていると感じ、教師と個人対個人で関係を持っていると感じているからであるとしている。（1984：151）國分（1980：75）は「かつてのロジャーズ理論は、ヒューマニスティック・アプローチ（Humanistic Approach　以下HA）という流れの中に融合してしまったように見える」としている。カウンセリングの分野でのＨＡは、実存主義的アプローチの別名である。言語教育の分野でのＨＡは、文法訳読法に批判的な教授法理論のCLLやサイレント・ウェイなどを指すようであるが、SGEもその一つとして位置づけてもかまわないであろう。

Richards，Platt＆Platt（1992：169）はHAには以下の4原則が重要であるとしている。

(a) 人間的な価値の開発
(b) 自己への気づきと他者理解の促進
(c) 人間的な感覚と情緒の覚醒
(d) 学習と学習方法への学習者の積極的なかかわり

林（1993）は、SGEをコミュニカティブ・アプローチの一翼を担うものとして位置づけているが、SGEの折衷主義的な基本性格からして、HAなど様々な構成要素が含まれていて当然といえる。そもそも「哲学が心理学やカウンセリング理論と結びついたものがヒューマニスティック・サイコロジーとか実存主義的カウンセリングであり」（國分,1980：180）、HAおよびSGEの背景にあると言っていいだろう。

本稿の発表者は「グループで学ぶ日本語」という題で、多種多様なSGEのエクササイズの中から日本語の教育現場で実践できるものを選び、その情意的目的、学習目標、対象者レベル、手順、留意点などを示した。お遊びのゲームといった内容ではなく、学習集団内の人間関係づくりと学習者間のホンネを出し合うプロセスを明らかにするものである。情意的目的に設定した項目が、上記HAの4原則に合致する点が多いのが特徴である。

JALT 95のワークショップでは、5つのエクササイズを紹介したが、その中から特に重点を置いた「4／3／2／1トーク」を選んで以下考察したい。

2、時間制限法のエクササイズ

流暢さは、日本語の話し方教育の中でも重要な要素であり、次に示すエクササイズは日本語を話す流暢さを強化することをねらいとしている。流暢に話せないのは、正確さを重視するあまり、文法的な間違いを気にして、はずかしくなり、スピードが落ちるからであると言われる（Arevart & Nation 1991：84）。以下のエクササイズは、Maurice（1983：29）が考案した「4／3／2」という実習にArevart & Nation（1991：84）が手を加えたものをベースにしている。「4／3／2」では、4分⇒3分⇒2分と話す時間を短くしていくことによって、学習者に話し方を速めるタスクを課している。

日本語学習者を対象とした場合には、「日本に来て驚いたこと」「最近の私の十大ニュース」「私の国の祭り」「この前の日曜日にしたこと」などのテーマから自分の話したいことを選択させる形をとるが、JALT 95のワークショップでは、参加者の大半が語学教師であることを考慮して、テーマとして「語学教師になった理由」を設定し、実施した。

エクササイズ名：4／3／2／1トーク

情意的目的：
(1) 制限時間内で要領よく話をする。
(2) 自分の話に自信を持つ。
(3) 日本語で話すことの恥ずかしさを軽減する。

学習の目標：
(1) 制限時間内で流暢に話す。
(2) 談話の中心テーマを要約する。

学習者レベル：中上級

グループ・サイズ：6人～20人程度（偶数になるように調整する）

用意するもの：タイマー、オルゴール、話のトピック（「語学教師になった理由」）

実施手順：（齋木・石田・林、1995：74-75の手順の一部を手直しして実施した）

(1) 部屋の机を片づけ、椅子だけで二重の輪をつくり、学習者は向かい合って座り、向かい合った者同士でペアをつくる。
(2) ペアの中で外側の学習者をa、内側の学習者をbとし、aはbに向かってトピックについて、教師の合図の後、4分間で話す。bは黙ってaの話を傾聴する。
(3) 教師はタイマーを見ながら、3分30秒でオルゴールを鳴らす。それが、あと30秒で話を終えてくださいという意味の合図となる。
(4) 4分間経過したところで、aは立って左の席に移動し、新しいパートナーとペアをつくる。aは、新しいパートナーに向かって、さきほどと同じ話をもう一度3分間で話す。パートナーは、黙ってaの話を傾聴する。
(5) 教師はタイマーを見ながら、2分30秒でオルゴールを鳴らす。それが、あと30秒で話を終えてくださいという意味の合図となる。
(6) 以下同じ要領で制限時間を2分間、1分間と縮めて実施する。
(7) aの話が四回終了した時点で、役割を交代し、bが話す。上記の要領で、4分、3分、2分、1分と制限時間を縮めていく。
(8) bの1分間での話が終了した時点で、1分間で4分間の話と同じ内容を伝えられたという学習者にそれぞれ1分間で全体に話を発表してもらう。聞き手は制限時間内に話を終えられたことに対して拍手を送るようにする。

3　結果

JALT 95では、上記のエクササイズに外国人2名を含む20名が参加し、その内14名が意見・感想カードを残してくれた。カードに書かれた内容は、総括的なフィードバックが多く、必ずしも上記のエクササイズに限定したものとは限らないが、何らかの関わりがあると思われる部分をピックアップして以下に紹介したい。

A: 良かった点：心理的負担が少ない。気になった点：はずかしいと感じる人への対応は？（男性、大学留学生センター教員）

B: とてもおもしろかった。中級の場合はちょうど当ってます。初級の生徒のための活用も勉強したいと思います。（英語圏からの参加者、男性）

C: とても楽しく学ばせていただきました。是非中級レベルのクラスのウォームアップで使ってみようと思います。ありがとうございました。（女性、大学教員）

D: 「何分経ったのだろう」と学生に感じさせない授業は、どうやったらできるのか、といつも考えていましたが、今回の発表はその疑問が少し明らかになったような気がします。早速月刊日本語のバックナンバーを読み直してみます。（男性）

E: ほとんど1 対1 もしくは小グループを教えていますが、何らかの形でいかせそうです。教えるというより引き出すことの大切さを学んだ感じがします。（女性）

F: JALTは、初めての参加ですが、日本語教育学会などと違いインターアクティブな、小グループの集まりが多くて参考になります。自分で体験してみてなるほどと思うことが多く、大変よい企画だったと思います。（女性、書店勤務）

G: 今回は中上級用（かなり語彙と文型が入っている）内容でしたが、また、入門・初級用もご紹介下さい。（女性、ボランティア日本語教師）

H: 途中で参加させていただいたので、最初の方はよくわかりませんが、スピーチ、ディベート等、日本人にとっても楽しい方法でした。ありがとうございました。（女性、ボランティア日本語教師）

I: 年々学生たちがおとなしくなってもいて、どのようにしたら「クラス」というまとまりができるのかと考えてもいました。今日のエクササイズのいくつかを使わせていただこうと思っています。（女性、大学留学生別科教員）

J: とてもよい内容だと思いましたが、教室内で行うとなると椅子や机を動かすのに手間どってしまうのではないかと思います。また、中上級レベルの学生がのって来るかどうか・・・積極的に参加するかどうかわかりません。初級レベルであれば、行いやすいと思います。（女性、大学留学生別科教員）

K: 少人数で初級のクラスを教えることが多いのですが、準備と工夫次第で応用できると思います。上級のクラスでは、生徒も喜んで参加することと思います。楽しいアイデアをありがとうございました。（女性、ボランティア日本語教師）

L: いろいろなclassroom activity楽しかったです。（女性、大学留学生センター）

M: a ・b に分かれて片方ずつ話すというアクティビティーの時、聞き手の対応によって話し易さがかわったので、聞き手のルールをもう少し決めた方がよいのではないかと思う。（例えば、「ええ」とか、「そうですか」ぐらい言ってもよいとか、黙っていると話し手に多少緊張を与えるのでは）（女性、専門学校教員）

O: ありがとうございました。エクササイズは適切に選ばれています。ここで示された諸技法は、日本の教授のみなさんには、十分に活用されているとは言えません。が発表者の腕の冴えを拝見し、うれしく思いました。（仏語圏からの参加者、女性、原文はフランス語）

4　考察

上記のエクササイズのように話し方を速めなくとも、トツトツとでもいいから話せればいいではないかとの意見もあるだろう。しかし、現代人はありとあらゆる側面で時間の短縮化と効率化を迫られており、一方で時間的なゆとりが求められている。日本人同士の話でもずいぶん発話量が多い割には、談話の結束性が弱かったり、話が的を得たものでなかったりして、要するに何を言いたいのかわからないという場合もある。話を圧縮できれば、時間的なゆとりを捻出する可能性もある。スピーチコンテストに出る学習者が、制限時間内で話そうとする場合にもこのエクササイズが応用できる。話す時間の短縮化

により、話す内容が濃密になることが期待できる。

同じ話を4回繰り返すのであるから、内容・語彙・文型が学習者にとって慣れたものとなるリハーサル効果がでてくる。そうすれば、時間が短くなっていっても、学習者は余計な緊張を感じない。前項でA が良かった点として「心理的負担が少ない」と指摘している点である。同じくAが気になる点としてあげた「はずかしいと感じる人への対応」であるが、このエクササイズでは一斉に話すため、自分の話は他の学習者には、聞こえにくくなり、恥ずかしさの軽減に役立つ。全体での発表は、4分の1に縮めることができた人にのみ指名するので、達成できた喜びが先行し、ためらいや羞恥心は、前面に出てこない。

実際に日本語クラスの学習者を観察したところ、1回目の4分で話す時は、かなり考える時間をとっていた。さらに「えー」「あー」「あのー」などフィラーが多く使用されていた。これらのフィラーは、次に言うべき言葉を探すだけでなく、話の組み立てを考える時間を作るためにも使われたのかもしれない。3回目の2分で話す時は、スピードが速くなっただけでなく、話の内容も効果的な構成になっていた。4 回目には、フィラーの使用や言いよどみ、空白時間などが少なくなり、談話としての結束性が高くなっていることが観察できた。これは、回を重ねるごとに、聞き手に対して内容を整理して話そうと配慮する余裕が出てきたことの現れでもある。聞き手は黙して語らないのだが、その存在が重要な役割を果たしていることになる。前項で示したようにMも「聞き手の対応によって話し易さがかわった」との体験を得ている。

また、F が「自分で体験してみてなるほどと思うことが多く、大変よい企画だった」とフィードバックしているが、國分（1980: 183）も「実存主義で知るとは何か。それは体験学習である。体でおぼえたものが真に知ったことになる」と指摘している。上記のエクササイズでa の4回の話が終わり、b に移行した段階で、制限時間を告げる前に全体の話が期せずして一斉に終了し、沈黙の時間が流れたことが二回あった。エクササイズの体験を通して、時間に対する感覚が覚醒された事例と言えるであろう。

5　問題点と今後の課題

M が「聞き手のルールをもう少し決めた方がよいのではないか」と意見・感想カードに書いている。貴重な参考意見であり、実施者としては「b は黙ってa の話を傾聴する」との事前の指示が、相づちも打ってはいけないと受け取られたことを反省したい。ただし「聞き手のルール」をあまり細かく決めすぎても問題であろう。というのは、どのような時にどのような相づちを打つかは「聞き手の判断」に任せられるべきで、ルール化すべきではないように思われるからである。日本文化の中で相づちは、比較的多用されるが、文化によっては、相手の話の途中で相づちを入れることは、相手の話をさえぎるサインと受け取られることもある。非言語的なうなづきさえも相手の話をあまり重要視していないサインと受け取られることもあり、文化差あるいは個人差の観点から、ルール化できない面もある。理想としては、エクササイズを通して、参加者相互の異文化性に参加者自身がそれぞれ「気づき」を得ることであろう。前述のHAの4原則のうちの（b）「自己への気づきと他者理解の促進」を重視する立場をとりたい。

「4／3／2／1トーク」の対象とする学習者レベルとしては、中上級と設定していたが、参加者の判断は分かれた。B は「中級の場合はちょうど当ってます」とし、初級の生徒のための活用には工夫を要するとしている。また、C も「是非中級レベルのクラスのウォームアップで使ってみよう」と書いている。一方、J は「中上級レベルの学生がのって来るかどうか・・・積極的に参加するかどうかわかりません。初級レベルであれば、行いやすいと思います」としている。BとJでは、同じエクササイズでも対照的な受け取り方をしていることがわかる。もっとも初級と中上級の境目をどこに置くかという点で両者のコンセンサスができているわけではないので、その辺の議論をつめる必要があるだろう。

J が「教室内で行うとなると椅子や机を動かすのに手間どってしまうのではないか」と書いているが、ものの移動には実際はさほど時間はかからない。むしろ問題なのは、椅子や机が固定された教室で実施する場合である。机と椅子が一方向を向いて固定された講義形式の教室では、HAあるいはSGEの試みは、極めて困難になる。

O による「ここで示された諸技法は、日本の教授のみなさんには、十分に活用されているとは言えません」との指摘を待つまでもなく、日本の大学の語学の授業においては一方通行的な文法訳読法が綿々と続いている。こうした現状をHAあるいはSGEを用いて何とか改善できないかという点も今後の課題としたい。

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Learner Self-Evaluated Videoing (LSEV)

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Introduction

This report describes teacher research in progress involving learner self-evaluated videoing (LSEV), a once weekly videotaping of student conversations in a three-times-a-week class. The methodology used allows students practice time, recording time and viewing time to analyze their own conversations. Preliminary results show it increases motivation for practice and directs students to more awareness and noticing. Here we will describe the still evolving procedure and the equipment used, summarize student feedback, and discuss the main benefits of LSEV. We will ignore the more lengthy discussion of conversation strategy use and selection (treated in Murphey, Kenny, and Wright, 1995) because we feel that the LSEV procedure lends itself to many aspects of language learning. This project has funding for one year; however, because of the initial success and interest from other teachers we hope to extend it and eventually integrate the procedure into the regular curriculum.

Project Description

We have been experimenting with the following pedagogical sequence for the last seven months of university teaching (April to November, 1995):

1) teaching students conversational strategies (CSs) and having them practice them in the first two 45-minute classes each week,
2) videotaping students using CSs interactively in short segments (about five minutes) in the third class, and
3) giving each student a copy of their conversation to look at and evaluate at home.

From the students' point of view, they are engaged in a step-by-step approach centered around the videotaping of their language use:

1) planning and practicing the language necessary for performance, including the study of vocabulary, conversation strategies, topic questions, and making opinions,
2) evaluating their performance using a form given by the teacher which encourages noticing language use, and
3) setting specific and attainable goals for future use.

The basic research question is: To what extent will the above pedagogical sequence result in processes thought to help language acquisition (e.g. increases involvement, language recycling, motivation, and noticing)? The LSEV process obviously allows and encourages students to notice what they are doing, what they need, and what their partners are doing (see Schmidt and Frota, 1986). We are interested in enhancing this as much as possible and reducing any inhibitory factors as much as possible.

We are also interested in the possible effect on teachers: How will viewing student conversations give teachers insight into students levels' and abilities? What can teachers do to adjust their teaching as a result? We only hope to open the discussion and give some tentative answers to these questions in this report.

Background

In the 1994-95 academic year (April to January), Kenny did a pilot teaching project in which he was able to film about half of his students interacting in five-minute segments once a week. He then spent several hours making copies from his master tape to give students copies the following week. He presented this methodology at the 5th Nanzan ELT Mini Conference (Kenny 1994) with some videotaped samples of his students. He then began collaborating with Murphey.

Students viewing their own tapes seemed so potentially productive that we wanted to be able to film more students and if possible give them copies of their tapes immediately (using the motivation while it's hot!). We also wanted to cut the labor-intensive aspect of copying tapes for hours. To do so, we devised a new methodology with added equipment with the help of a grant (Nanzan University, Pache Grant I A).

Current Equipment

We now operate in the third class each week with two 8 mm cameras, each attached to two VHS video recorders. Two students converse in front of a video camera which records the conversations on 8mm tape. This tape is the teacher's master tape, which can be viewed by the teacher later. At the same time, each video camera sends the record signal to two VCRs, making two VHS copies of the conversation, one for each of the students to view at home.

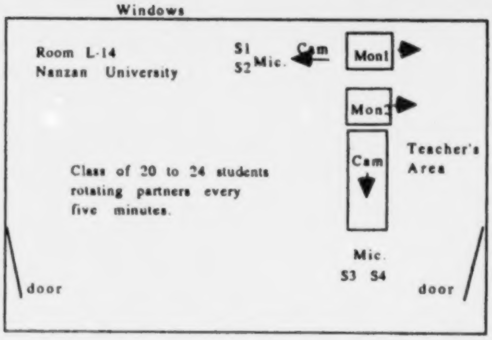
Each of a pair of VHS recorders is on the lower shelf of a trolley and hooked to a monitor mounted on the top shelf (Mon1 and Mon2 Diagram 1 below). Trolleys, cameras, and microphones take about ten to fifteen minutes to bring down from the audio-visual equipment room and set up.

In this way, four students conversing can be filmed at one time and VHS copies can be given to students immediately after filming their segment. The teacher can look at the master of all student recordings contained in the two cameras later.

Methodology

Starting with the spring semester of 1995, 46 first-year students, and 44 second-year students in three-times-a-week 45-minute classes of 22 to 24 students (4 classes) were taught in the following manner:

Diagram 1



Mondays - strategy and topic introduction (e.g. asking for repetition, describing families) and practice, about 25 minutes (and other classroom tasks and activities);
Wednesdays - further strategy conversational practice, about 20 minutes (and other classroom tasks and activities);
Fridays - students are videoed for four or five minutes interacting with a partner chosen at random. The students own VHS cassettes are used to record their conversations and given back to them immediately after it. While pairs are being filmed, the other students are practicing the CSs and changing partners each five minutes. On each Friday they have from five to seven different partners and recycle the content and skills.
At home, students watch their tapes several times, using a form to guide them through the self-evaluation process and make goals for the next conversations.

With conversations limited to 5 minutes, all students are able to be filmed in each class. (Six segments times 4 students = 24 students. Six segments of 5 minutes takes 30 minutes. With a few minutes for changing partners and warming-up, everything fits nicely into a a 45-minute class.) This is but one way to organize the videotaping and, in fact, Kenny is experimenting with a modified form of this procedure in another class which meets only once a week for 90 minutes, using only one camera and two VCRs. Other variations are being investigated as more teachers begin trying it out.

Results

Here we will just give a brief summary of results (for a more detailed analysis and complete data see Murphey, Kenny, and Wright

1995), list what we find to be essential elements of the procedure and ways that can intensify student learning. Feedback from students was collected in three ways: weekly action logs (journals) and self-evaluation videos, a questionnaire given after the fourth week, and an end of term report written after reviewing the whole semester's clips (an average of 11).

Students said that from watching themselves on video, they are able to correct things such as speaking clearly and loudly, pronunciation, the length of their pauses, and how actively they engaged their partner. Many remarked that the video was helpful for noticing, remembering and fixing their mistakes, as well as noticing the CSs they're learning.

From watching their partners on video, most feel that they learned some knowledge-based or skill-based information: strategies, expressions, gestures, how to speak clearly and loudly, or vocabulary. Many remarked that they had been impressed by their partners' attitudes and effort. Students also noticed that gestures, smiling, and eye contact made the conversation more lively.

Initially, about half the students admitted feeling nervous in front of the camera; several others said they were embarrassed about watching themselves later at home. Otherwise, students quickly acclimatized to the regular process of being videoed, often enlisting family and friends as resources in the evaluation loop. Students appreciated the fact that other students were engaged in similar conversations while they were being filmed. Initially one of the great fears was that everyone would be watching while they talked.

We would also like to mention that we gathered experiential data first hand by going through the process in Japanese. We had a Japanese tutor teach us strategies for 30 minutes at the beginning of each week for seven months and then filmed ourselves using them at the end of each week. Not only did it provide us with participant observer data, we could also show short segments of the clips to our students to show that we were practicing what we were preaching.

Elements of Practical Importance

By varying what we do and getting lots of feedback from students, we have discovered what we believe are some essential components to a smooth running LSEV procedure:

1) Pre-teach and practice target language and tell students exactly when they'll be videoed. Knowing they will be videoed will motivate them to practice and prepare more.
2) Videotape regularly. Students are less likely to be intimidated by the experience when they see that videotaping is a regular event.
3) All students talk at the same time, rotating partners, while others are being videotaped. No ones watching but the camera.
4) Have students keep all their video clips to compare old segments to more recent ones. Their videotapes should be wound to the end of the last clip when they bring it to class for the next recording.
5) Give students a specific, structured task to do while viewing their video clip. A student's words captured on video is as instructive as any language lesson they can take and twice as meaningful, but only if they watch it with a purpose.

Intensifying the LSEV Process

As we videoed students on successive Fridays, we adapted the procedures and assignments based on student feedback and our observations. For example:

A few students watched their conversations with friends or family, and this seemed to increase the importance of the videoing. Thus this was assigned as part of the viewing assignment and students were asked to write the feedback given by friends and family.

Because improvement was so noticeable to us from week to week, we wanted students to be more aware of this. So at the end of the first semester, each student was required to review all their clips and analyze their progress and their future needs in a written report.

Some students wanted more feedback, so Kenny is experimenting with individualized counseling with students. The student chooses a video segment to be viewed with the teacher, who gives feedback on the performance as well as the self-evaluation. The counseling sessions last from 15 to 20 minutes and are motivating for both participants (Kenny, in progress).

On their weekly self-evaluation forms, many students created goals that were not specific enough or goals that were well beyond their current ability. We are experimenting with exercises in goal-setting and how to make those goals short-term, attainable, and specific.

Discussion: Why Videotaping?

There are four main reasons that regular videotaping seems to work well: increased motivation, enhanced noticing, learner training, and better teacher awareness of student levels and problems (read, "less guessing").

1) *Motivation*: Regular videotaping engages students in a dynamic process that includes planning language to be used, noticing their and their partner's language use, examining past goals, and most of all, a pragmatic recycling of material with many classmates inside and outside the classroom. This is similar to the effect of having to give a speech. The closer and closer the time of performance comes, the more we tend to run the words over in our minds. All this preparation is intensified and motivated by the student's specific goal of doing well in the video.

2) *Noticing*: When watching their videos and evaluating their performance, emphasis is on noticing how they and their partners use language, correctly and incorrectly (Schmidt & Frota, 1986; Ellis, 1995). They can do this with little risk of losing face since they and their partners are the only ones who usually watch. Noticing corrections themselves may also have a more positive effect than the often negative effect of teacher correction. Finally, they can also plan for improved use for future conversations, making future goals.

Ellis (1995) also proposes that students need to perform a comparative operation, comparing what they have noticed in the input with what they are presently able to produce in their own output. This noticing and cognitive comparison become immensely easier to do if they can replay conversations that they have had with others, immensely more intense when they not only have the other person's input in front of them but also their output, and immensely more noticeable if it is not only auditory but provides the wider visual context as well. This noticing is enhanced and focused by the self-evaluation form.

In order to intensify student noticing and goal setting, we have been experimenting with different forms to elicit more quality noticing and interaction with the materials and the people involved. The task for students is to watch there video segments and complete the following statements on the form. (NB: There are large spaces to fill in on the form.)

Here are three specific things I said/did during the conversation that I'm happy about:

Here are some specific things I said that I want to correct:

I used my new conversation strategies ____ times.

I used the following old conversation strategies:

Here are useful things that my partner said that I want to use soon:

Here are some corrections and advice I could offer my partner:

My goals for this conversation were:

I feel I achieved my goals:
not at all 1 2 3 4 5 completely

I have these specific goals that I can accomplish for the next conversation:

I give myself the grade of ____ for this conversation.

I want information/feedback about these things from my teacher:

3) *Learner training*: The LSEV procedure and the questions above which hinge upon the regular videoing train students to assess themselves and improve themselves "at the point of need" (Nelson 1991). They are less dependent on the teacher and classroom as they begin to notice what they and others do, "noticing the gap" in Ellis' terms (1995). Students actually do something similar to action research on their own learning as they plan conversations, practice them, are videoed, and then can observe and reflect on their performance and make new plans for better results. They can also get feedback from their partners, the teachers and any other viewers they wish to invite to collaborate with. Ultimately, as learners become more self-aware and can initiate their own learning and do their own self-corrections, the dependency on teachers is lessened and independence increases (Allwright and Bailey, 1991).

4) *Teacher awareness:* LSEV is also way for teachers to notice specifically what students are doing, adjust specifically to what students need with more finely tuned input, and to monitor improvement. Teachers can individualize instruction and conduct action research with more quality data which can be examined for many different purposes (Tarone and Yule, 1991).

An Imaginative Look at the Future: Maybe it's a Zony II.

Ideally, the oral communication classroom-laboratory of the future could accommodate every student pair with a small, wide angle camera, a microphone, a monitor, and a double VTR in a language laboratory-like setup. Such a system would allow student pairs to record at their own pace, and then immediately view, discuss, and evaluate their language use together, and also be able to take a copy home for private recycling. At the same time the teacher is able to circulate and help "at the point of need."

For now, storing student conversations digitally on hard disk requires too much space. As this technology improves quickly and prices become affordable, it's realistic to foresee a time when a student can keep all her conversations in digital storage for review and self-evaluation, cutting and pasting her video as easily as we edit on word processors.

Conclusion

We have become enamored not so much with video per se but rather with the ability of video to motivate our students to prepare and practice for a specific goal, to capture their learning opportunities (Allwright 1984), and the possibility of being able to view these opportunities often, recycling them so that students can learn more from them. Most language learners experience those times when they feel, "Yes, that's the way to say it!" or they hear their partner say something and they think, "I want to remember that one." The trouble with these moments is that often they do not remain in memory. Videoing pre-practiced strategies in action while dealing with familiar topics gives students rich segments of conversation to learn from when they replay them in their homes.

LSEV motivates students to prepare and practice for videotaping, keeping in mind a concrete end-product: a good language performance. It gives students a structured way to analyze themselves, view their progress, and set goals as it moves them further along the path toward learner autonomy.

Finally, we find students are not only learning strategies and "language" from each other, but in more holistic ways, they are learning and appreciating their attitudes toward English, their effort in studying, an assertive style of talking and questioning, and appreciative responses. In sum, they are getting the "big picture" of communication and videoing allows them to look at it repeatedly and incorporate it into their behavior and image of themselves as English speakers (Murphey, in progress).

Note

Murphy and Kenney have finished a 23 minute teacher-training video (semifessionally produced) on using LSEV in the classroom. Please contact them to get a copy. Tim Murphy, Nanzan University, 18 Yamazato-cho, Showa-ku, Nagoya 466, Japan.

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The Learning Journal: An Aid to Reinforcement and Evaluation

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By integrating a student-generated journal activity into the course syllabus teachers can implement a useful tool for learning reinforcement, as well as establish a valuable process for evaluation of both learners and teachers. Written by students during the last ten to fifteen minutes of the class period, journals include a summary of and feedback about the day's activities and the language used to accomplish objectives. They provide learners with an opportunity to express whatever learning and/or problems that emerged during the class.

When students write at the end of the class, the information they encountered is still fresh and easy to recall. In the process of remembering and writing vocabulary and structures, as well as content, the learning objectives are reiterated and reinforced, aiding retention. Since this is a classroom activity, the teacher is present to answer questions that arise and students have renewed opportunity to clarify any confusion.

Format

If only used to summarize the lesson's activities as learning reinforcement, a simple notebook is appropriate and may be handed in for evaluation, while the writing format of the journal can be what best suits the learner. To ensure that students record specific information as well as their subjective perceptions about the class, teachers may choose to direct the journal writing. To this end, journals may realize varying degrees of guidance through a structured format designed to meet specific objectives. Steven Rudolph suggests in *Project-Based Learning* (1993) a general form which is very simple, stating the date, with blanks to fill in: *Today I did:*, *I learned:*, *I liked:*, *I disliked:*, and *For the next class I plan to:*.

In my Oral English for Education Majors class, I provide opportunities for students to use journals to further their own learning and to experience the benefits of the activity for their own classes in the future. This focused format includes headings such as *activities*, *discussion*, and *conclusions*, as well as a separate category for homework assignments and is presented as a 'teaching journal' (Figure 1). Students are given a master copy and asked to make one copy for each week's class, which are then catalogued into a binder together with their class notes.

While I did not consciously plan this as a *writing* activity per se, 21% of students commented, unsolicited, in their course evaluation, that it was a good writing exercise. When asked if they found the teaching journal useful, and why or why not, over 80% found this activity useful for a wide range of reasons, including lesson retention, understanding and review.

This procedure fits neatly into the university's English Communication Program, where, in order to encourage dynamic learner-centered interaction, we have eschewed the use of textbooks. Instead, students compile their own textbook comprised of hand-outs, notes, and other materials, both student- and teacher-generated. Again, students are given a master copy of an adapted format based on the teaching journal, renamed the 'lesson summary' (Figure 2), and asked to make copies to be organized in a binder used exclusively for this purpose. As the forms are completed, they become the title page of each chapter, with materials filed behind them. An outlined syllabus with a brief description of the weekly topics represents the table of contents. In addition to the benefits of the actual writing, the journal gives students a format in which to organize their materials to use as a course textbook.

Evaluation

With heavy teaching loads and large classes, even the most diligent and conscientious teacher faces a challenge in evaluating students. The introduction of the learning journal provides teachers with a continuous, student-generated record of the learner's activity throughout the course, which can be evaluated. Therein, a teacher can assess the level in which a student participated in the class, to what extent students were cognizant of the primary learning points and how much was absorbed. For example, in a lesson with the teaching objective of proficiency in asking and answering Wh-questions, we began with a warm-up jazz chant in order to practice rhythm and intonation of Wh-questions, followed by a practice activity where students had to ask and answer Wh-questions. Although it was never explicitly stated that the two activities were connected or even what the overall objectives were, 10-15% of the class expressed their recognition of the jazz chant as a mechanism to introduce Wh-questions, improve their intonation, and to familiarize themselves with the use of Wh-questions to aid conversation. The level at which a learner not only participates in an activity, but cognizes the material to the extent that they can perceive the aim of the activity and recognize their own learning process as a result, can be clearly identified through the learning journal writings.

Questions asked in the journals can also indicate the extent of the learning process: the student takes the information a step further and ponders. They could refer to a misunderstanding of a grammar point which can easily be clarified ("Which is correct: He is taller than *me* or He is taller than *I*?") or consider an issue raised in class discussion ("What are some cultural differences in the *global village*?"). The extent and depth of the questions students ask help teachers evaluate students' active participation and the level of understanding of the lesson.

As a mid-term review, our students worked in pairs to answer questions using their journals as a reference. This activity functions in three ways: 1) as a mid-term evaluation; 2) as a course review, and 3) as validation for students' conscientious participation. Their answers demonstrated an impressive depth of understanding which is not always obvious during the activity.

One can also utilize journals as a tool for evaluation of one's own performance. If a particular point is not recorded in most of the students' summaries, or if a large percentage of the class expresses the same misunderstanding one must reconsider its presentation. This process also illuminates the success or failure in meeting current objectives, providing a good reference for planning the following year's syllabus.

Drawbacks

The learning journal does have drawbacks of which one should be aware. Foremost is the time involved, both as an in-class activity and as an assignment collected, marked and returned. Another potential drawback is reverting to teacher-centered pedagogy. As recollection is the nexus of the journal as a communicative activity, perhaps key words or points can be provided, but most of the information in the journals should come from students.

Conclusion

This journal activity can be a valuable asset to the learning, teaching and evaluating processes. Coordinated with course objectives and methodology, it aids retention and understanding, and promotes active review. Journals can be organized to guide learners to think more in terms of learning objectives and provide students with an opportunity to develop writing and summarizing skills and with a venue for questions, comments and criticism about the course. Moreover, the learning journal allows a means of ongoing evaluation of participation and progress as well as self-evaluation of the teacher's performance.

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Figure 1. A4 size *Teaching Journal*

Teaching Journal
Week

Date:

Topic:

Activities:

Discussion:

Conclusions:

New vocabulary:

Questions/problems:

Assignments:

Figure 2. A4 size *Lesson Summary*

Lesson Summary

Date:

Today's Theme:

Summary:

Cultural Discoveries:

Activities:

New words, phases, etc.:

Your questions/problems:

Homework:

Using Texts to Understand Texts

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Introduction

In theory, we teachers accept reading as a social process "in which what is to be learnt is to some extent a joint construction of teacher and student" (Cook-Gumperz, 1986, p.8) and think that it is a good idea for students to read whole texts. In practice, we continue to break up texts for prereading exercises in order to prepare students for one particular text; we read the text and move on to the next, often unconnected, text. Volosinov (1929/1986) wrote, "Meaning does not reside in the word or in the soul of the speaker or in the soul of the listener." Instead, meaning "is like an electric spark that occurs only when two different terminals are hooked together" (p. 102). So it is with texts: we understand one in relation to others. The argument here is that the most effective prereading strategy is for students to read a connected text as a preview. This argument has practical implications for classroom practice and materials development.

Though this intertextual approach is under-researched in L2, there has been research in L1 instruction in which students read previews of target texts. Graves, Cooke and LaBerge (1983) found that reading detailed "previews" or summaries significantly improved comprehension of difficult short stories by low ability junior high school students. Hayes and Tierney (1982) found that reading an article about cricket before reading one about baseball improved comprehension and that reading one article about cricket facilitated comprehension of another.

Extensive reading is another form of intertextual strategy, provided that individual students read books around one theme. Though they did not address the issue of reading books that shared a common theme, Robb and Susser (1989) found that extensive reading of graded readers and SRA materials was at least as effective in improving reading comprehension as a program of intensive reading based on skills. It was also perceived as more enjoyable by their Japanese college students. A proponent of extensive reading, Krashen (1994) has suggested that students be allowed to preview by reading the material they will read in L2 first in Ll.

This paper reports on a pilot study that looked at the effectiveness of reading one text before another compared to the effectiveness of a conventional prereading discussion.

The Pilot Study

Overview

Two conditions were compared: reading schema activation (RSA) and spoken schema activation (SSA). In the RSA condition, the group read a summary of the target text. In the SSA condition, students discussed, in pairs, ideas related to the reading. There was no control group because the power of prereading itself has been well documented; indeed prereading is taken as a given in most EFL textbooks (Tudor, 1988). The effectiveness of different modalities of prereading was the issue in question.

Subjects

The study was conducted in a women's college in northern Japan. Seventy first year students and forty-two second year students participated in the first part of the study; sixty-nine first-year students and thirty-two second year students parlicipated in the second half. Fewer second-year students participated in the second part of the study because it took place during the job-hunting season and they missed class to attend interviews or to prepare for interviews. Intact classes of first and second year students were taught by their regular teacher. The college's student body is relatively homogeneous and entrance examination scores for the students, all Cross-Cultural Communication majors, are roughly equivalent. All the students had at least six years of English in junior high and high school.

The Materials

In consultation with the teacher, two readings were selected and RSAs and SSAs were developed (see appendix). The teacher normally writes most of his own material, so students were accustomed to working with handouts. The readings were both adapted, "Singapore Weddings" from a guidebook (Craig, 1979) and "The Real Japan" from an essay collection (Mahoney, 1975). The teacher and researcher adapted these texts, based on their knowledge of Japanese students at this proficiency level.

Procedures

The treatments were balanced across groups, with each class getting one RSA and one SSA. Groups were intact and administration took place in their regular classes.

The first reading focused on "The Real Japan." The RSA summarized the argument of the essay and related it to the students' home region. The students read it, then worked with a partner and answered the questions "Was there anything you didn't understand" and "Do you agree with the writer?" The teacher circulated and provided help. The SSA asked the students to think *of* symbols of Japan and to decide if they were examples of the new Japan or the old. Students then worked with a partner to see which of their symbols were the same.

The second reading was "Singapore Weddings." A short version of this text, taken from a textbook, (Helgesen, Brown & Venning, 1991) was used as an RSA and compared to an SSA warm-up. The SSA group was asked if they had ever been to a wedding; if they had not attended a wedding, they were asked to report what they knew about weddings in general. Questions like "What happened at the wedding?" and "What did the groom say or do?" were asked. Students were also given a picture of a bride and groom to make sure they understood the two most important words in the reading. After answering the questions, they worked with a partner and shared answers. Those who read the RSA also got the picture of the bride and groom and worked with a partner to answer the questions "What ideas were new? Was there anything that surprised you? Was there anything you didn't understand?" The teacher circulated and provided help.

After reading the texts, students wrote recalls in Japanese. The prompt was; "Put away the reading. Don't look at it again. Please write everything you remember. Write in Japanese."

Scoring

The narrative recalls were analyzed against a checklist of ideas contained in the reading. This list was the result of the researcher analyzing the texts and breaking them up into idea units. This scheme was checked by a colleague for completeness. Presence of an idea in a written recall was awarded one point and the scores were compared. All the recalls were checked by a native speaker of Japanese. Presence of ideas that were repeated in the RSA and the target text were identified by a bullet and these repeated ideas were also analyzed separately.

Results

The two passages were analyzed separately because the design of the pilot study's response sheet did not make provisions for students to write their identification numbers. Thus, there is no analysis of effect for passage in the pilot study. First, the scores for "all ideas" and for "repeated ideas" were compared using ANOVA. Then, individual items were analyzed using the Chi-square test throughout.

"The Real Japan" showed a significant effect ($p< .05$) for year in the "all ideas" total scores. The first year RSA group performed better, remembered more ideas, than the first year SSA group while the second year groups performed at the same level. This suggests that first year students were better able to use the RSA with the passage. However, as we shall soon see, this effect was not consistent.

There were no significant differences in answers to individual items except Ideas 5 and 6. However, since the small number of responses to Idea 5 (Tokyo is not the real Japan.) did not satisfy the conditions of the Chi-square test, only Idea 6 (The real Japan is in the country.) may be considered valid. This was an Idea that was repeated in the RSA and target reading. The RSA

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group remembered this idea significantly more than the SSA group did. This, however, was the only one of the eleven repeated ideas where significant differences were found, suggesting that mere repetition is not the sole factor in the superiority of the RSA condition.

In the "Singapore Weddings" reading, no significant difference was found overall between the RSA and SSA conditions for "all ideas," but there was a significant difference for repeated ideas, with the RSA condition being superior.

Because the ideas were repeated in the intertextual condition, it could be argued that it is not surprising that this condition did better. They read the idea twice; simple repetition may well account for their better scores. However, no significant difference was found for individual repeated items in "The Real Japan." There, repetition alone does not seem to account for the findings. This is not the place for a full theoretical discussion, but the Vygotskian idea of semiotic mediation (Vygotsky & Luria, 1930/1994) would seem to offer a way to begin explaining this phenomenon.

Significant differences were also found for year and a groupby-year interaction was found for "all ideas." While the SSA group shared identical t mean = 39.14) scores for first and second years, the RSA condition showed better effects for second year students (mean = 50.05) and worse effects for first year students (mean = 31.0). This suggests that, contra results for " The Real Japan," second year students made better use of the RSA condition.

The data on individual ideas were mixed, with the SSA group doing better on three ideas that could be validly analyzed as significantly different and the RSA group doing better on two such ideas. Only one of the two was a repeated idea, again suggesting that repetition is not the whole story.

Discussion

Overall, the pilot study showed mixed results, with the RSA condition in general being as good or better in most cases than the SSA condition. The pilot study has drawbacks in its use of intact groups. However, perhaps the most significant issue arising out of the pilot study is the content of the discussions in the SSA condition. Though the answers students wrote down to the SSA task are available, the interactions that occurred between the students are not available for analysis because, as spoken data, they were ephemeral. It would be useful to determine how much content found in the target text was actually being discussed in the SSA tasks. While the repeated ideas of the RSA and target text could be compared, there was no such opportunity to compare any ideas repeated between the SSA and target text. Hence, the repeated ideas approach will be abandoned and ways to more carefully control content investigated.

For a follow-up study, the best solution seems to be to move from a spoken schema activation task to a written schema activation task, where the element of spoken interaction can be removed. Further control will be obtained by eliminating all repetition of the material between the RSA and target text, so that the RSAs are only thematically connected. This leaves the process relatively controlled, so that it is just the modality of the schema activation that is being investigated rather than any content in the text. The content becomes an issue only in the recall of the target text. Thus, only the content of the target text, not that of the schema activation tasks, is measured.

Conclusion

This pilot study raises a number of methodological questions that will be addressed in a future study. It is important to look at the important resource of intertextuality. Despite our best efforts, our second language reading classrooms look nothing like our living rooms at home. An intertextual approach would allow our students to make the links they do in their daily reading and thus better prepare them for reading on their own.

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Appendix: Schema Activation Materials for The Real Japan

RSA The Two Japans

1 Read this.

Americans who live in Japan sometimes say that they do not want to live in Tokyo because it's not the real Japan. They mean that Tokyo is different from the rest of the country. The real Japan is outside Tokyo, in the country. Sendai, for example, is the real Japan — and Koriyama is even **more** real. Shibata-gun is really in the country. It is the **most** real!

The author of this article thinks that the important difference is between Old Japan and New Japan. The New Japan's symbols are automobiles, cameras, and electronic goods. The Old Japan's symbols were cherry blossoms, sukiyaki, and the Emperor. The author does not think the countryside is more real than Tokyo. The countryside is prettier than Tokyo. Life there is harder than in Tokyo. However, both the countryside and Tokyo are real.

2 Work with a partner.

Talk about the story.
Was there anything you didn't understand?
Do you agree with the writer?

SSA The Two Japan

1 When people think of Japan, what "symbols" do they think of?

Write at least five.

-
-
-
-
-

Are these symbols old or new? Write "old" or "new" next to each.

2 Work with a partner.
Read your list to her. Listen to her symbols.

How many were the same?

Think about all the symbols.
Are they typical of Japan? Why (not)?

223

Vocabulary and Reading: Teaching and Testing

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Introduction

Extensive research has shown that vocabulary is strongly correlated with reading proficiency, which is arguably the most critical skill at the university level. For this reason, every reading teacher and more generally every teacher concerned with preparing students for university study should allot some time for the teaching of vocabulary. Drawing from L1 reading research, Chall (1991) states that readability measurement has shown consistently for more than 70 years that vocabulary difficulty is the best predictor of comprehension difficulty (Chall and Stahl, 1985; Thorndike, 1973-4). Stated differently, we can say that vocabulary difficulty has a higher correlation with reading comprehension difficulty than other factors such as syntax and organization (Chall, 1985; Klare, 1963; Lam, 1985).

This holds true for L2 learners as well. Brisbois (1992) has shown that vocabulary scores are the primary factor contributing to L2 reading scores for both beginners and higher level students. Vocabulary knowledge has been found to be a better predictor of L2 reading ability than general English ability to such an extent that learners who know less than 3,000 word families cannot succeed academically while those who know more than 5,000 word families are extremely well positioned for success (Laufer, 1992).

Given the importance of having an extensive vocabulary for academic success, instructors should consider what vocabulary to focus on by considering word frequency and diagnostic test results of their learners (Harlech-Jones, 1983). Then, they can develop a principled vocabulary development program using both indirect and direct teaching methods to expand the learners' vocabulary size, depth, and fluency. A combination of indirect and direct teaching will assist learners in acquiring the vocabulary they need in the shortest possible time.

Diagnosing What Vocabulary to Study

A quick and objective way to assess learners' vocabulary size is to administer Nation's Vocabulary Levels Tests for the 2,000, 3,000, 5,000, 10,000 and university word levels (Nation, 1990). The 2,000 through 10,000 levels tests are based on the General Service List (West, 1953), and the university level test is drawn from the University Word List (Xue and Nation, 1984). Since these tests attempt to measure whether learners know a single, core meaning of a word, it is not a measure of the depth of the learner's vocabulary knowledge (Read, 1988). Because higher frequency words (i.e., the 2,000 Word Level List and the University Word List) make up approximately 87% of the running words in many academic texts, it is essential to test learners' knowledge of these levels.

Each form of the matching tests consists of six sets of six words and three definitions. The following example illustrates an individual set from the 2,000 Word Level Test:

1. original
2. private _____ first
3. royal _____ not public
4. slow _____ all added together
5. sorry
6. total

Within each set, the six words all have the same part of speech and are unrelated in meaning; the task for the learners is to match a word to the appropriate definition. The definitions, which vary from individual synonyms to definitional phrases, are always chosen from a higher frequency level; thus, the definitions for the 2,000 Word Level Test are taken from the 1,000 Word Level List. In addition, to mitigate guessing, no context is provided. Since each set tests at least three words, one form of six sets tests a total of eighteen items. Finally, a score of sixteen out of eighteen, which was the standard at the time of Read's study (1988) can be defined as showing "mastery" of a level.

This matching test has been found to be both scalable and reliable by Read (1988). In practical terms, scalability means that learners score higher on the higher frequency levels tests, and that these scores decline on the lower frequency tests. The one exception was the University Word List Level Test, which produced scores between the 3,000 and 5,000 word levels on the pretest and between the 5,000 and 10,000 word level on the posttest. While Read (1988) suggests several factors to account for this, the main conclusion is that the University Word List Level Test is drawn from different sources than the other tests; consequently, it cannot be expected to be scalable. The reliability coefficients of the levels tests used at the beginning of an English proficiency course and the same levels tests used at the end of the 12 week course were .94 and .91 respectively.

Indirect Teaching of Vocabulary

Even a thorough vocabulary teaching program cannot account for all the vocabulary acquired by either first or second language learners. The majority of an individual's vocabulary knowledge is gained indirectly through reading and listening (Anderson and Nagy, 1992; Krashen, 1985; Nagy, Herman, and Anderson, 1985). Thus, by reading even a moderate amount daily, most learners should be able to acquire hundreds or even thousands of words over the course of a year (Anderson and Nagy, 1992). Further evidence for this is provided by West (1993) who found that individuals who had been exposed to more reading had wider vocabularies than learners with less exposure.

Students at all levels should be involved in an extensive reading program (Bamford, 1984; Woodinsky and Nation, 1988) which encourages wide, regular reading at an independent level. Comprehension of nineteen out of twenty running words on the page, will assure that the student is reading fluently and is able to learn many unknown words through context (Nation, 1990).

A low level student could, for example, read 8-10 books at the 400 word level (a word level defined by the publisher) and then move on to the next level, say 500 words, and read 8-10 books at that level, and continue progressing in this manner. By doing so, that student would encounter the high frequency words of English repeatedly. Saragi, Nation, and Meister (1978) found that meeting the same word around 16 times when learning indirectly in context of reading was sufficient for word retention. Further benefits of this kind of indirect vocabulary instruction are that it develops automaticity and strengthens bottom-up reading skills (Eskey and Grabe, 1988).

Practical tips for setting up an extensive reading program include acquiring fairly short books (under 75 pages in length) and providing students with a wide variety of topics to choose from. For this last reason, it is a good idea to have at least four times the number of books as students (Nuttall, 1982).

To keep the students on track, it may also be a good idea for them to keep short reading journals in which they write summaries or reactions to the readings. Having students fill out a reading chart in which they note how many pages they have read on a particular day can graphically show students their progress.

Finally, Sustained Silent Reading (Lipp, 1990; Pilgreen and Krashen, 1993) is useful for initially getting students into the habit of reading extensively in English. However, the bulk of the reading should be done outside of class. Ultimately, the books will have to be easily comprehensible and interesting to keep the students reading the hundreds or thousands of pages they should be covering over the course of an academic year.

Direct Teaching of Vocabulary

Meeting Vocabulary for the First Time

A significant body of research exists which strongly supports the use of vocabulary lists of

L2 words and their meanings in L1. Numerous researchers (Crothers and Suppes, 1967; Kellogg and Howe, 1971) have shown that large quantities of vocabulary can be learned quickly in this way. There are, however, some guidelines which, if followed, make using vocabulary lists even more effective:

1. Use cards rather than lists of words. Cards can be used more flexibly than lists and they also avoid the serial effect in which one word cues the next word in the learner's memory. By changing the order of the cards, words can be remembered independently of one another.
2. Deeper mental processing results in better retention. Mental activities which require more processing of a word will promote the learning of that word (Craik and Lockhart, 1972). Creating a mental image of a word's meaning, as is done with the keyword technique, is superior to relying on rote learning.
3. Say the words out loud. Seibert (1927) found that silent repetition is inferior to saying the words aloud. A more active approach increases retention.
4. Know the pronunciation and stress pattern of the word. It has been shown (Fay and Cutler, 1977) that words stored in memory are organized first by syllable structure and/or stress pattern. This also implies that passive approaches such as visual presentation and reading may not be the most efficient ways to introduce new vocabulary (Channell, 1987).
5. Don't study words with similar forms. Nation (1990) strongly suggests that words are initially stored in the mind according to form, thus, the presentation of several words with highly similar forms will create confusion and make learning much less efficient. For example, learning the words stimulate and stipulate at the same time would cause unnecessary difficulties.
6. Spaced rather than massed learning is best. If a student wants to devote 60 minutes to studying vocabulary, it is better to study on four separate occasions for 15 minutes each rather than only once for the whole hour. This technique is known as the distribution of practice effect (Schouten-van Parreren, 1988; Tulving & Colotla, 1970).
7. Push for the longest possible interval, but get it right. Atkinson (1972) found that allowing learners to control the sequencing of what word to study next is best since they can then arrange cards on the basis of their previous performance. Words that are remembered well can be placed at the bottom of the stack while those that are yet to be learned well can be placed near the top so that they will be encountered sooner. The ideal situation is to look at the word at the longest possible interval and yet get it right.
8. Use semantically unrelated sets of words. Words with closely related meanings interfere with each other when they are learned at the same time (Higa, 1963; Tinkham, 1993). These words include words with strong semantic relationships (e.g., types of fruit), synonyms, and opposites.
9. Study 5-7 words at a time. When dealing with a large number of words, it is best to break them into groups of 5-7. This is much more efficient than studying with 20-30 words at one time.

Enriching Previously Acquired Vocabulary

Once words have been acquired and their basic meanings established in the learner's mental lexicon, teachers can focus on deepening the learners' vocabulary knowledge. However, for many words, an in-depth knowledge is simply unnecessary (Stoller and Grabe, 1993). Therefore, when choosing which words are worth enriching, teachers should consider their learners' goals, the importance of a word for comprehending a reading passage, and the frequency of the words.

Enriching vocabulary through reading involves a wide variety of vocabulary knowledge. Receptive reading knowledge includes knowing a word's core meaning, a knowledge of what it looks like, which parts of speech it can function as, what grammatical patterns it appears in, what words are likely to appear before or after it, how common it is, the prefixes and suffixes which can be used with it, in what situation we would meet it, its range of meanings, other words we can associate with it (Nation, 1990, 1994) and various register restraints (Richards, 1976).

Essentially, enriching learners' receptive vocabulary can be achieved by presenting new information about words and by giving learners opportunities to meet new words surrounded by new contexts, associations, and collocations (Nation, 1994). As stated previously, it is important to avoid teaching too many new or rarely used words with closely related meanings

(Stoller and Grabe, 1993; Tinkham, 1993). Some common types of association exercises involve recognizing or producing definitional meanings, synonyms, antonyms, parts of speech, word forms, collocations, superordinates, coordinates and subordinates. Teachers can ask learners to generate a list of words and phrases that they associate with a theme of the reading. Collocation exercises are another way to enhance learners' knowledge of vocabulary. Collocations are semi-fixed expressions that can be analyzed word by word (e.g. bread and butter) and which can be thought of as words which commonly appear together. As some collocations will have close equivalents in the learners' L1, one researcher (Bahns, 1993) suggests that those collocations which cannot be directly translated should be directly taught. Some common ways to present collocations include cloze, matching, and chart exercises as well as card games, dominoes, crossword puzzles, and bingo. Specific examples of association and collocation exercises can be found in *New Ways in Teaching Vocabulary* (Nation, 1994), Redman and Ellis' (1990) series *A Way with Words*, and McCarthy and O'Dell's (1994) *English Vocabulary in Use*.

Developing Fluency

Although the exercises mentioned above can expand the size and depth of the learners' vocabulary, they do not ensure fluent reading of that vocabulary. Fluency in reading means being able to rapidly access and identify words in the learners' mental lexicon. This is sometimes referred to as developing sight vocabulary or automaticity. As Nation (1994) explains, "the essential element in developing fluency lies in the opportunity for the meaningful use of vocabulary in tasks with a low cognitive load" (viii). Exercises with a low cognitive load require students to be familiar with the vocabulary and the content of the reading as well as the activity. One activity which can improve the rate of accessing words is bottom up processing drills in which learners quickly identify and match the same or similar word forms. The following exercise asks learners to circle the word on the right which matches the word on the left:

1. above about
across
above
among

In a similar exercise the learner is presented with two columns of the same words arranged in different orders and is asked to match the words by drawing a line between them. Both these matching exercises can also be done using words with different parts of speech but from the same word family. In addition to re-reading extensive readings, re-reading intensively passages from a text will also build fluency. Once learners are familiar with the vocabulary and content of a reading passage, timed and or paced reading exercises can be employed.

Conclusion

Vocabulary development should be an integral part of a reading course. After assessing the size of the learners' vocabulary knowledge, both direct and indirect vocabulary activities need to be selected carefully and implemented as part of a course's design. Both types of activities are essential for establishing new vocabulary and expanding the learners' word associations. Finally, attention should also be given to improving the rate of access to words in order to improve reading fluency.

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Research on Vocabulary Retention

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Introduction

Previous research in vocabulary learning has focused on how much, how quickly and by what means vocabulary might be most efficiently learned/taught. Nation (1990) proposes that practitioners do word frequency counts of target language (TL) materials in order to set learning goals for TL vocabularies. He then posits that the one way in which vocabulary is best learned is in context through reading; this is also advocated by Huckin and Bloch (1993) and Parry (1993).

Since not all words are learned through context, there is a question about the role of bilingual dictionaries in reading and vocabulary learning. Day and Luppesco (1993) found that in a population of 293 Japanese university students, the group using their own bilingual dictionaries while reading a passage scored significantly higher on a vocabulary test than the group without dictionaries. Other routes to vocabulary acquisition include a "think aloud protocol" for unfamiliar words while reading (Huckin and Bloch, 1993), mnemonic techniques and word parts (Nation, 1990), interactionally modified input (Ellis, Tanaka, and Yamazaki, 1994), and a variety of techniques involving keywords, semantic relationships (Brown and Perry, 1991), contextual referencing (Hulstijn, 1991) and imagery Ellis and Beaton, (1993a).

In a study designed to explore native English speakers' metacognitive knowledge about how many words they might know, Zechmeister, D'Anna, Hall, Paus and Smith (1993) investigated how people think they may acquire new words. Although a first language (L1) study, the results reveal how adults believe they learn new vocabulary. For example, lay people in this study categorically ranked directly being taught word meanings as number one of seven word learning methods and reading/inferring from context as number three of seven methods. In contrast, a group of informed experts (qualified as having background knowledge in linguistics and language learning), ranked inferring from context as the first (best) method for learning new vocabulary. Two questions arise here: first, how are one's theories shaped regarding metacognitive knowledge, and second, to what extent are these theories useful in understanding one's own learning? In response to the first question, it could be argued that lay people believe 'direct instruction' is the best way to learn more words because they can recall memorizing lists of words in school. Similarly, an informed group may respond according to the popular research agenda of the day: that the bulk of vocabulary is learned from context (Ellis, 1994; Krashen, 1989). Either position is useful because each invites competing hypotheses to the question: how are words best learned?

The above question is problematic because it presupposes *what it is to learn a word*. Word knowledge invites a variety of interpretations. Some studies have focused on recognition of the word in target language context (Day and Luppescu, 1993) and in a combination of contexts involving both recognition and production (Ellis and Beaton, 1993b). Ellis (1994), on learning a word states:

> We must learn its syntactic properties: its part of speech and its syntactic subcategorisations. We must learn its place in lexical structure: its relations with other words. We must learn its semantic properties, its referential properties, and its roles in determining entailments. We must learn the conceptual underpinnings that determine its place in our entire conceptual system. (p. 215)

Ellis' statement is particularly relevent to Japanese learners of English. Japanese has a corpus of marked[1] loan words from English and other languages. Knowing the cognate does not mean knowing the target word. For example, "table" as a loan word becomes "teburu." In addition, the "subcategorisations" may not have been learned. Rather, the words contribute to an individual's expanding (Japanese) semantic field. It would be skipping a step to assume that knowledge of these loan words constitutes knowledge of the original lexica.

In a longitudinal study of a Japanese learner of English in an American Anthropology class who was instructed to keep a list of words that she did not know, Parry (1991) concludes that it is difficult to determine what it means when a learner records a word as hard, or if she does not record a word at all. Parry later noted (p 110) that although the learner may have appeared to know a word in context, morphology and syntax problems prevented her from being able to define the word individually. The problem of ascribing a precise set of semantic features to a particular word is necessarily a gradual one and will usually require several encounters in informative contexts.

In comparing a meaningful context to a translation method of vocabulary learning, Hulstijin's (1992) Mental Effort Hypothesis posits that the greater the effort required to infer word meanings in context, the easier it would be to retrieve word meanings. Hulstijn tested the Mental Effort Hypothesis on 145 adolescent and adult learners of Dutch as a second language. In one experiment he found superiority in retention of word meanings for a translation (L1) group over concise–context and multiple–choice conditions. In a separate investigation, he found superiority for a multiple choice condition over a synonym condition. In Hulstijn's studies, he did not control for part of speech, yet Ellis and Beaton (1993a) citing research over the past 30 years, conclude that since nouns have a greater imageability than other parts of speech, they are easier to learn.

There is a relative dirth of research on long term effects of vocabulary learning techniques. Perhaps this is because time is an intervening variable; learners are inevitably exposed to various vocabulary items over time. The key to long–term vocabulary retention may lie in production (Ellis and Beaton, 1993a) or in implicit attention (Hulstijn, 1989). The former two concepts require learners to move from receptive to productive processing. It is generally accepted in the cognitive psychology literature that learning words for production is more difficult than for reception (Ellis and Beaton 1993b).

The present two studies investigated L2 retention of vocabulary items from a reading passage among Japanese learners of English. One study investigated immediate L2 retention and the other L2 retention after a one–week period. In each study, the same cue–types were used: a Japanese translation[2], an English definition, bilingual dictionary access, and a no–cue control. The words to be glossed appeared in italics in each passage, save the controls. Consistent with Ellis and Beaton's (1993b) findings, only nouns were investigated. Consistent with Hulstijn's notion of implicit attention (1989), the participants were administered a distractor task so as not to be explicitly focused on the vocabulary items. A remaining question therefore, is will the participants in the conditions retain more word meanings than those in the controls?

Study One (S1) addresses these questions:

(H_0) Are the cue conditions (Japanese, English, Dictionary) more effective for the retention of English noun meanings than a no–cue (control) condition?

(H_1) Is the Japanese condition more effective than the English condition?

(H_2) Is the Japanese condition more effective than the Dictionary condition?

(H_3) Is the English condition more effective than the Dictionary condition?

Study Two (S2) addresses these questions:

(H_0) Are the cue conditions (Japanese, English, Dictionary) more effective for the retention of English noun meanings than a no–cue (control) condition after a one–week period?

(H_1) Is the Japanese condition more effective than the English condition?

(H_2) Is the Japanese condition more effective than the Dictionary condition?

(H_3) Is the English condition more effective than the Dictionary condition?

Method

Participants included 189 male first and second year Japanese university students. The participants ranged in age from 18 to 20 years old.

In order to identify possible target words, three steps were taken: first, an independent sample of the popluation under investigation was requested to read the 243–word passage and identify words they did not know; these words were then selected as possible target words for the study. Next, given that nouns have a high level of learnability (Ellis & Beaton, 1993a), the possible target words were limited to nouns. Finally, all participants were requested to indicate which words they knew by checking YES or NO on a list of target and artificial words. To control for guessing, they wrote down the meaning of the target words (in English or Japanese) next to each target/artificial word. All participants used Japanese; none guessed at any of the artificial words. Based on their "NO" responses, the number of actual target words was reduced to 20 nouns.

Next, participants in S1 were divided into 3 treatment groups: English, Japanese, and dictionary access. Each group then read a different version of the same 243–word reading passage about the ozone layer. The English group's version had glosses in English for the 20 target nouns; the Japanese group's version had Japanese translations; the Dictionary group's version had the 20 target nouns in italics and received intruction to use their dictionaries only for the italicised words; the control group's passage had neither italicised words nor glosses.

Participants were allowed as much time as needed to complete the reading. In all groups the passages were collected and a short comprehension quiz serving as a distractor task was administered. By focusing the participants on meaning, a model for implicit learning of vocabulary was introduced. Following the distractor task, the participants completed a posttest vocabulary measure. The posttest consisted of the 20 target nouns in the same format as the initial YES/NO questionnaire, but without the artificial words.

S2 paralleled S1 with one important variation: the posttest was administered one week after the reading and comprehension quiz (distractor task).

Results

For both Studies 1 and 2, a separate one–way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed on the pre–test results for all cue–conditions to insure that participants in each group were not significantly different in terms of background vocabulary knowledge.

In S1, an ANOVA revealed significant differences for both Japanese (F=4.627, df=3, p<.05) and Dictionary (F=3.951, df=3, p<.05) cue conditions vs. the control condition. Neither the Dictionary nor the Japanese group exhibited any significant differences when compared to eachother. This suggests that either bilingual dictionary access and/or Japanese glosses favor immediate vocabulary retention for this population.

Table 1 shows the raw scores from the S1 posttest. Here, each group with a cue condition scored higher than the Control group; Table 2 gives levels of significance for the differences stated above.

Table 1 Mean Scores of Posttest: Study 1

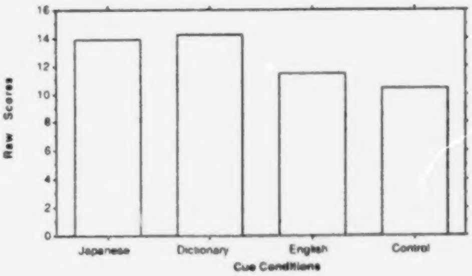

Table 2: One Way Analysis of Variance: Study 1 Posttest

Comparison:	Mean Diff.:	Scheffe F–test:
Japanese v. Control	4.158	4.627*
Dictionary v. Control	3.842	3.951*
English v. Control	.842	.19
Japanese v. Dictionary	.316	.027

* Significant at 95%

There is an effect of cue–type on vocabulary retention for the participants in S1; however, one cue–type failed to out–perform another. Hence, it cannot be said that one cue–type is more effective than another in aiding S1 participants in recalling noun meanings.

The results of the ANOVA performed on the raw scores of the groups in Study 2 revealed non–significant differences between groups. Thus, no cue condition facilitated the learning of nouns over time for participants in S2. It should be noted that separate ANOVAs were performed on each study since the cue conditions were not compared across studies, but rather within each study.

Table 3 shows mean scores for groups in both S1 and S2. Comparisons are made between groups within studies.

Table 3: Posttest Mean Scores in Studies 1 and 2

Table 3. Posttest Mean Scores in Studies 1 and 2

Study One (S1)			Study Two (S2)		
Group	Mean	Std Dev	Group	Mean	Std Dev
Japanese	13.89	4.96	Japanese	7.75	2.91
Dictionary	14.25	1.52	Dictionary	7.44	2.58
English	11.46	3.06	English	8.23	2.63
Control	10.42	1.90	Control	8.22	2.54

Discussion

Three main questions were posed as to the effect of cue–type on retention of English nouns. As demonstrated in Table 2, the first question was partially supported: the Japanese and Dictionary groups out–performed the Control group on the posttest in S1. The second question was not supported: no one group significantly out–performed another on the posttest. Cues may facilitate noun retention, though it is not clear if a native language cue or mere dictionary access to highlighted words is the best path. Further, if long term retention is the goal of vocabulary learning, then the results of S2 are discouraging; the differences between groups are non–significant. No cue–type appears to have any effect after a one–week period.

A question raised by these studies, is what might be the relationship to a given word and the type of cue used to facilitate learning? Certain types of nouns may be rendered more salient than others by different cue types. Whether the latter may be attributed to the salience of the nouns or to the processing of the noun by the individual learner remains to be seen.

A second question not satisfactorly answered by these studies is whether it is better to supply glosses or not. Hulstijn (1992) concludes that

> ...the discussion in foreign language pedagogy should not focus on the question of whether it is better to give the meaning of an unknown word than let the learners infer word meanings themselves, without a cue. The discussion should rather focus on which procedures are more effective. (p. 8)

At present, the trend in materials development is toward authentic texts and real language. In lieu of glosses, pre–reading activities are used to render the material salient as it is encountered.

In conclusion, there were several problems with these studies which need to be addressed. First, since the nouns were not tested in meaningful context, it could be argued that the task was not testing true knowledge of noun meanings in context. Second, although the distractor task was intended to focus the participants on comprehension (away from word meanings), it is not clear how well each participant understood the passage. A low–level comprehension of the text could account for non–significant differences between mean scores on the posttests in both studies. Finally, there may be a pre–effect for the participants, since they were exposed to the target nouns on the pre–test. The degree to which this rendered the nouns salient is not known. Similarly, low scores for the Control groups in each study should be expected, considering the relatively small gains in learning typically associated with implicit learning (Reber, 1989).

Although the use of native language glosses and bilingual dictionaries may be helpful to learners, practicioners need to examine the role of vocabulary learning through reading from more than one perspective. A crucial question is how does reading in a second or other language facilitate vocabulary learning over time?

Notes

[1] The Japanese writing system reserves one of two phonetic systems for transcribing loan words. Since Chinese characters (kanji) and both phonetic systems (hiragana and katakana) can all appear in one sentence, the loan words (in katakana) are marked.

[2] Thanks to Professors D. Riggs and H. Fudano for their respective translation and back translation of these cues.

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Adapting the Shared Inquiry Method to the Japanese Classroom

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Introduction

The purpose of this paper on the Shared Inquiry Method is threefold: 1) to explain the Shared Inquiry Method; 2) to show how this approach to teaching English language and literature meets the Japanese Ministry of Education's recently revised course of study guidelines for teaching English; and 3) to share the results, to date, of the authors' research on how to adapt the Shared Inquiry Method to the English classroom in Japan.

For the past six years the authors have been experimenting with the Shared Inquiry Method in their classrooms in Hokkaido. These classes have varied from junior college students (Kokugakuin Junior College) to English literature majors (Hokkaido University); from classes of 60 students to seminars of six; from all female or all male classes to mixed classes; from groups of all the same age (18 year olds) to groups of adults (ranging from 22-75 years old); from seating of fixed desks in rows to chairs that can be arranged around seminar style tables. These experimental courses have varied from supplementary lessons in English classes to full year literature courses. They have also been taught at the Hokkaido University of Education in Sapporo as an intensive course at the end of the academic year (30 contact hours in 5 days) for the past five years.

The Shared Inquiry Method

The Shared Inquiry Method is a practical and highly effective method of teaching English reading, writing, listening, speaking, and critical thinking skills (Great Books Foundation, 1992). All students read a short selection of "great literature" rich in a variety of interpretations. They then discuss this selection on three levels: 1) the factual level (vocabulary, plot for fiction, the arguments for non-fiction, etc.) in which there is only one correct answer; 2) the interpretive level (character motivation, unusual use of vocabulary, author's intent, etc.) in which there is no single correct answer, but several possible responses based upon the reader's personal interpretation of the text; and 3) the evaluative level in which the reader relates the issues or principles from the selection to his own life and values. The interpretive level is the focus of the Shared Inquiry Method.

The teacher, or facilitator, poses an interpretive question to the class. During the Shared Inquiry discussion the students help each other explore the meaning of the text, the author's intent, a character's motivation, etc. Students share their questions and interpretations constantly referring back to the selection. The facilitator guides students in carrying their thinking to logical conclusions, not by steering them toward a predetermined answer or even a consensus, but rather by helping each student develop his or her own point of view. During a Shared Inquiry discussion the facilitator asks for constructive controversy and seeks resolution; that is, the ability of each student to maintain, support, and defend with confidence his or her own thinking. Personal ideas and divergent opinions stimulate other students to deepen or even alter their own understanding of a solution. In short, the Shared Inquiry Method is a process in which all participants explore together the meaning of a great literary work.

The Shared Inquiry Method and the Monbusho Guidelines for English Classes

In 1989 the curriculum objectives for teaching English in upper secondary education were revised and implemented in 1993-1994. According to Masao Niisato (1995), a senior curriculum specialist in the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau of the Mombusho, and one of those responsible for the course of study National Guidelines for Education, the overall objectives of the new guidelines are to develop students' communicative competence in a foreign language; to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in a foreign language; and to encourage international understanding through foreign language communication. New courses "A," "B," and "C" have been proposed along with these new objectives (see Carter, Goold, & Madeley 1993; Goold, Madeley, & Carter,1993; and Goold, Carter, & Madeley,1994) for a broad discussion of the guidelines).

The Shared Inquiry Method directly addresses these objectives. In fact, it is a highly effective pedagogical approach to implementing the new curriculum guidelines. For example, one aim of Oral Communication C, is "To arrange and announce one's ideas, to develop ability in discussion, and in general to nurture a positive attitude towards communication" (Carter et al., 1993, p. 3). This is precisely what the Shared Inquiry Method is designed to accomplish. Participants in a shared inquiry discussion learn to recall details from a text and cite them as supporting evidence to their answer of the interpretive question. They learn to arrange details; to recognize a problem and to resolve it; to develop their own thinking; to express their opinions using persuasion; to relate their ideas to other's interpretations; to think reflectively, independently and critically; and to communicate through a positive and constructive discussion. In addition to being an effective method for fulfilling the Mombusho objectives, students enjoy participating in Shared Inquiry discussions.

Research Results to Date

According to the student evaluations of these classes over the past six years, on a scale from 1 (poor) to 10 (excellent) the average rating is 8.5. Students' positive comments often focus on the uniqueness of this teaching method in Japan: "To be honest, I've never taken such a thrilling course." "I've never been prompted to think over crucial, controversial, even philosophical problems through literature." Their negative comments stem from their frustration in being unable to express their ideas in English: "Taking my low ability to think and speak in English into consideration explains my frustration at my low ability to express my opinions." "I can't speak English what I want to say. Then I decide to study English more." "I'm happy to hear many opinions, but I can't speak well." Most students request that the course be taught for a full year rather than as a supplementary activity.

One of the most common issues asked by colleagues is how do you overcome the passive Japanese students in English classrooms? Through their research, the authors make the following six recommendations:

1) Select a text that is age, gender, and interest appropriate for that class. For example, at the beginning of the course, when students are not familiar with the Shared Inquiry Method, fairy tales that they already know make a comfortable beginning. Everyone must read the same text. The factual level discussion becomes simplified since the plot, for example, is familiar. As the class becomes more used to the method one can select more complex texts, such as Aristotle's *On Happiness*, Virginia Woolf's *A Room of One's Own*, or Freud's essay to Einstein, *Why War*? All students seem interested in what happiness is and how to achieve it. Female students are particularly interested in women's issues. War and peace stimulate mixed classes of students as well as adults. If the notion of "ijime" concerns students, Anderson's *The Ugly Duckling* or Wilbur's *A Game of Catch* are ideal selections.

2) Assign an interpretive question that is rich in divergent answers based on the text, and a question that is genuinely of interest to the teacher/facilitator. The question must have several plausible answers that can be supported by the text, and the facilitator must have a real doubt about how he/she will resolve it. Discussions are more lively when there is no "one right way of thinking," when the teacher is not the authority, and when the text supports divergent thinking. For example, a good interpretive question for Jack and the Beanstalk might be, "Why did Jack climb the beanstalk the third time?" This leads to animated discussions of Jack's character. Is he an adventurous kid or a thief and a murderer? A good interpretive question for Tolstoy's *The Two Brothers* might be, "Does the author want us to believe that the younger brother made the right choice?" Discussion focuses upon the author's intent as expressed in the text and interpretations often reflect the values of individual participants, yet can be fully supported by the rich text.

3) Prepare for the Shared Inquiry discussion by reading the text aloud as a class, either round-robin style or assigning a narrator and characters. Literary works come alive when read aloud. Then assign students to read the text a second time as homework taking notes on anything they don't understand, anything that surprises them, upsets them, anything they disagree with, or an unusual use of words. After the factual level discussion, assign the interpretive question for the next session. Ask participants to read the text focusing upon the assigned question. Request that they write out their answers with supporting evidence from the text, including page numbers. This preparation facilitates and encourages discussion. After the interpretative discussion ask students to write if they changed their opinions during the Shared Inquiry discussion. If so, how did they finally resolve the question?

4) If possible, arrange the seats so the students can see each other as well as the facilitator. Seminar style seating around a round table is ideal. If the class is large, ask students to make tent cards and write their first names in large letters on their own card. Naturally the facilitator is seated also at this table. The facilitator should make a seating chart so that students' responses can be recalled and so each student will have at least one chance to participate in every session. In the beginning, if students do not raise their hands to speak, the facilitator should call on them; however, it should be understood by all that if they have nothing to add to the discussion, or if they wish to think more before speaking, they may "pass." Nobody should feel obliged to speak until he or she is ready, but all should be given the opportunity.

5) The facilitator's role is to ask questions, not answer them or offer opinions; to focus on student's personal reflections and ideas; and to encourage them to exchange opinions directly with each other. Divergent thinking should be encouraged, "piggy-backing" should be discouraged. Constructive controversy supported by evidence from the text helps to develop intellectually responsible thinkers. Towards the end of the interpretive discussion the facilitator can seek resolution to the question, but not consensus. Students independently find their own resolution based upon their interpretation of the text. When the discussion turns to the evaluative level, supportive evidence from the text is replaced by the student's personal set of values and morals. For example, an interesting evaluative question for Jack and the Beanstalk, "When, if ever, is it acceptable to steal?" An exciting evaluative question on *Why War?* is, "When, if ever, is war justified?" or "Under what circumstances would you fight in a war, if any?" Such evaluative questions always evoke responses no matter how passive or shy Japanese students seem to be.

6) The problem most often mentioned by students is their inability to formulate their thoughts in English and to express them clearly. The authors' research has shown that it can be constructive, in such cases, to allow students to express themselves in Japanese. Together, as a whole class, their ideas can then be put into English as part of the process of inquiry and communication.

Another question frequently posed by dubious colleagues about adapting the Shared Inquiry Method to the Japanese classroom is, since Japanese students are hesitant to express their personal opinions in a public forum, how do you get them to say what they think, and to defend and even to debate their positions. Based on six years of experimentation, the authors make the following two suggestions.

1) The facilitator should emphasize from the very beginning of the course, and often repeat, that there are no correct or incorrect answers to interpretive questions. As long as a student can support his/her opinion with textual evidence his opinion is valid and worthwhile. An important objective of the Shared Inquiry Method is to help students understand and respect divergent thinking, even if they do not subscribe to it.

2) The facilitator should be well trained so that he/she does not lapse into the "teacher as authority" role. He/she must learn to listen carefully to the students, use follow-up questions to sustain and mediate the discussion, to be spontaneous but also to purposefully guide the discussion back to the text keeping the central interpretive question in mind.

A third issue facing teachers in Japan is the size of the classes. The authors have adapted the Shared Inquiry Method to large classes by dividing the students into smaller groups and assigning them different activities on the same text. For example, in studying Tolstoy's The Two Brothers one group might be reading the story aloud as a drama, with a narrator, a younger brother and an older brother. Another group might silently read the text and individually mark in the margin where they approve and disapprove of something a brother says or does. Another group could be discussing the issues of how you might talk your good friend into doing something you think he should do, but that your friend doesn't want to do. A fourth group might be discussing with the teacher/facilitator an interpretive question, "According to the story, must we be willing to take risks in order to achieve happiness?" In some cases students can learn to facilitate small groups themselves.

The authors believe that the most powerful learning occurs when the students are participating in classroom activities, discussing and debating directly with each other, exploring together for the meaning of a great literary text, creatively and critically thinking through issues of enduring significance. The Shared Inquiry Method promotes this kind of powerful learning.

Conclusions

Six years of experimentation, to date, with the Shared Inquiry Method, in scores of English classes and with hundreds of students in Hokkaido have shown that this is a viable alternative approach to English language and literature teaching and learning. Although some students find it frustrating, they rate the course among their most exciting academic experiences.

As their listening skills develop they learn to understand and respect other's points of view, to remember who said what, and to follow long and sometimes not so clearly stated explanations of other's opinions. As their reading skills develop they learn to comment about specific passages in a text, to compare and contrast passages, to notice patterns and contradictions, to context guess unfamiliar vocabulary and to draw conclusions about a whole selection. As students' oral skills develop they more readily talk about their ideas clearly and purposefully, incorporate other student's comments in their own responses, question each other, openly argue or disagree with an idea they've heard, offer evidence for or against an idea they did not generate, help answer questions that other students have, and participate with enthusiasm (no one sleeps). As students follow up the Shared Inquiry discussions with writing assignments (not discussed in this paper) they become more effective writers. As students' critical thinking abilities increase they become more independent thinkers, support their ideas with evidence from the text, compare, relate, and even revise their ideas, analyze evidence, critically weighing new material, relate relevant personal experiences to the text and its significant issues, and reach a personal resolution about complex questions. These are precisely the objectives of the new Mombusho guidelines.

Japanese students are used to working in groups. They have been taught since kindergarten to resolve problems together, so the Shared Inquiry Method is a natural pedagogical approach for them. The new and exhilarating part is learning to become creative, critical, independent thinkers. What a joy it is to facilitate Shared Inquiry classes! The authors will continue to refine the adaptation of the Shared Inquiry Method to the Japanese English class.

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Literature? Oral English? or Both?

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Some Japanese universities have their foreign teachers of English teaching a variety of courses under the rubric of "English." I myself, over the nearly 14 years I've been in Japan, have been asked to set up my classes as discussions of current newspaper events, video lab with movies, debate and formal speeches, Intercultural communication, readjustment and psychology of culture shock for returnees, American society, drama and English videotaped skits, typing and computer literacy,and even American cooking. But more often Japanese universities offer only two types of English course—the Oral English or Conversation English often the province of the foreign teachers exclusively—and the Literature courses which are often the province of the Japanese nationals.

During my first year however, someone in the Kansai University literature department looked closely at my resume and noticed that I had a Bachelors degree in English Literature under that Masters in TESL. At the job interview I was told that I would be teaching American literature, preferably a novel, even though my degree was in British Literature and my interest in Pre-Raphaelite poetry. My protests that my nationality notwithstanding, I had little knowledge of American literature, went unheeded and so standing before my first university class, on my first day, I had the students open Steinbeck's *Of Mice and Men*.

I was greeted by a rising pitch "eeeeh" by the students as they noticed that the text I had chosen had English on one page, and a complete translation into Japanese on the facing page because "I have just come to Japan, and don't speak Japanese." Sublimely unaware that my students were wondering what they could possibly be expected to do in a course where the book was already translated, I launched into my syllabus in which I envisioned the students doing much of the class presentations themselves as group projects. And then I looked up to notice a room full of blank faces. Through the next few weeks my students helped me learn that although they were indeed English majors in a respected university, some of them had little experience or skill in listening to spoken English. A discussion question certain to elicit several responses in a literature class in the U.S. would be greeted by total silence here. That students taking over the teacher's raised podium was unheard of. And that only two of a class of 40 English Literature majors had any intention of becoming English teachers.

I had a lot to learn about Japanese classroom styles, but the students after some transitional period of adjustment, came to learn, I believe quite a bit about alternative ways to learn, a lot about *Of Mice and Men*, and not a small amount about themselves and their own potential. They did indeed begin to discuss opinions about the novel (once I had made the adjustment of providing discussion question worksheets as homework the week before). They did indeed begin to raise their hand and offer opinions and ask questions (once I had made the adjustment to making obvious marks in my roll-book when I called on students and tallying up "star contributors" and "should be ashamed" blackboard lists of those who had chosen to sit silent throughout a class. They did indeed stand up at the front in groups and make wonderful presentations including puppet shows of the dialog; costumed role-plays of the characters in action; drawings and even paintings of the scenes; and quiz games (with prizes) over the facts of the story.

By the end of the school year I received very favorable comments about the chance to "teach a page" in these ways, and by the the following January after this class was long over I received more than one New Year's card saying that a student had "changed their mind and decided to be an English teacher" after enjoying my "oral method" of teaching literature.

Whether you teach in schools that bless you with the plum of a literature course, the yoke of an unwanted literature course, or the nonguidance to choose any textbook and teach any type of course your heart desires; I hope some of you will consider the possiblity of choosing to teach literature with an oral method.
Three other important considerations are:

1. Check your resources.
2. Know your students
3. Share the teaching load.

By resources I don't mean only the textbook, but also yourself as teacher. If you cannot spark your own interest over a work, your lack of excitement will multiply itself across the desks before you. Choose a book that is rich in the kind of reading experience you yourself enjoy—one which you would recommend to a friend. Students won't mind doing some extra dictionary thumbing for difficult texts if the excitement is there as in:

> I was sick—sick unto death with
> that long agony; and when they at
> length unbound me, and I was
> permitted to sit, I felt that my senses
> were leaving me. The sentence—the
> dread sentence of death—was the
> last of distinct accentuation which
> reached my ears. After that the
> sound of the inquisitorial voices
> seemed merged into one dreamy
> indeterminate hum. (Poe)

Choose short stories that can be covered more quickly and some left unfinished if you are uncertain of how much students can handle in a semester. Or choose poetry that are short enough to cover in a single class session if shifting attendance is a problem. Ninety minutes my students spent picturing the walker in "The Road not Taken" and debating if the "sigh" was sad remorse or happy relief in the last stanza:

> I will be telling this with a sigh
> Somewhere ages and ages hence;
> Two roads diverged in a wood, and
> I—
> I took the one less traveled by,
> And that has made all the difference. (Frost)

By knowing your students, I mean not only their major and their level of ability but also their personal interests. The above selection from "The Pit and the Pendulum" might work well with a course in an all-male University, whereas female junior college students of various levels have never failed to respond to the following poem:

> Time does not bring relief; you all
> have lied
> Who told me time would ease me of
> my pain!
> I miss him in the weeping of the
> rain;
> I want him at the shrinking of the
> tide. (Millay)

Finally , by sharing the teaching load, I mean letting students stand up in front of the class and take over the work and the glory of presenting the lesson. My shyest of students have sometimes hunkered down below the podium and lifted stuffed dolls or pictures on sticks up to enact a role-play, but all have risen to the final applause when their performances were finished and the response to the "group presentation projects" has been reported almost unanimously positive in anonymous end-of-the-year evaluation questionnaires.

For those of you who have not taught literature discussion before, I offer the following list of types of questions, to expand upon the traditional tasks of translation and grammar.

Ten Types of Questions with Examples Concerning the Literature Above

1. *Content comprehension.* Who are the "you all" in Millay's first line? What "lie" did they tell?
2. *Vocabulary expansion.* Working with contrast of opposites, if "merged" and "indeterminate" are opposite to "distinct" in the last sentence of Poe, what word contrasts with "hum"?
3. *Setting.* What place is most likely the setting for the poem: A desert caravan in Saudi Arabia, downtown Tokyo office building, a small fishing village in Shikoku, or the deck of the Star Trek's Enterprise? Why do you think so?
4. *Characters.* What is the relationship of the speaker of the poem (Millay) and the "him" in lines 2 and 3? What do you guess has become of him?
5. *Cross-cultural.* Would an American or a Japanese be most likely to choose the "less traveled" path as the Autumn hiker did? Why do you think so?
6. *Symbols, metaphors & similes.* What could the path be, if Frost is using it as a symbol and this poem is not about walking?
7. *Personalization.* Have you ever had a time when you felt so sick or upset, that you couldn't hear words distinctly? What was going on?
8. *Values clarification.* Which path would you have chosen at that fork?
9. *Author/intent.* What kind of person do you think Millay herself was?
10. *Creativity.* If you could write a different ending for the sad Millay sonnet, what would happen?

This is only a partial listing of possible types of questions for a discussion of literature. Student presentations and question-and-answer discussions are just some of the activities you could use in your literature course. I leave you with a "creativity question" as a teacher: How can you improve on the suggestions herein to make your own literature classes grow into oral experiences of sharing, discovery, and fun?

Adding 'Magic' to an EFL Reading Program by Using Children's Literature

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Most university students tend to rely heavily on translation in order to 'read' in English. This tendency stems not only from the fact that students are trained to read by means of translating (Bailey, 1991), but also have insufficient motivation to do otherwise due to the complexity of the assigned texts and a lack of interest in the content. In addition, students are not really 'ready to read' because they have poor reading skills and strategies and an inadequate vocabulary. Children who are first encountering English need exposure to the language and development of emergent reading skills if they are to eventually become good readers. A common approach to teaching beginning readers has been to concentrate on teaching the mechanics of reading such as recognizing and naming letters, the decoding of words according to phonic principles, and teaching the rules of spelling (Wells, 1985). However, Adams points out that though decoding skills are important, it is "approaches in which systematic code instruction is included along with meaningful connected reading [that] result in superior reading achievement overall" (1990, p. 12). One source of reading material, largely overlooked until recently, which has the potential of motivating students to read as well as serving as a source of comprehensible language input and thus facilitating language learning is children's literature. Children's books have much to offer all ages of EFL learners (Appelt, 1984; Carr, 1984; Flickinger, 1994; McGuire, 1985; Meek, 1991; Thistlethwaite, 1994).

Motivation has been linked with improving reading skills (Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985; Grellet, 1981; Krashen, 1985; Meek, 1991; Walker, 1987). Walker points out that "...motivation in reading in a foreign language is even more important since the effort required to make sense of the text is that much greater than when reading in our mother tongue" (1987, p. 46). Also, according to Garner (1987) how much students make use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies depends to a large extent on the degree of their motivation: "Unless a learner wants to accomplish a particular goal, it is unlikely that he or she will expend the time and energy it takes to engage in cognitive and metacognitive strategies" (Garner, 1987, p. 20). Children's literature can motivate our students not only because they may match the interests and experiences of our younger learners or recall childhood memories of our older learners (McGuire, 1985; Thistlethwaite, 1994) but because they have a "magic" that appeals to many readers (Bettleheim & Zelan, Cullinan, 1992a; Cullinan, 1992b; Machura, 1991). It is this magic that appeals to children when they hear a story read, helps the child in her efforts to decode, and provides the pleasure older readers find in children's literature.

Students will try harder when they are interested and receive encouragement (Bettleheim & Zelan, 1982; Meek, 1991) and believe there is a likelihood of success (Smith, 1982). Day (in Yamamoto,1990) says that it is important that students be given opportunities to read for pleasure but he adds that the books must be easy and interesting. While the 'magic' of children's literature may provide the appeal that will hold the readers' interest, it is the simplicity of the language found in many children's books that helps foreign language learners find success and accomplishment in having read a 'whole book' (Thistlethwaite, 1987) and thereby facilitates language learning. Much of the language is contextualized and the meaning is clarified through the use of pictures which makes children's literature more comprehensible and accessible to EFL learners.

Unlike many of the readings of ESL texts, children's books provide a complete model of discourse. Students new to literacy in their first language or in a second language need to read and hear complete texts. "Many whole-language proponents argue that students with minimal language literacy skills should be reading whole selections of well-written literature not bits and pieces" (Schierloh, 1992, p. 618). There are many excellent selections of children's literature that provide the short, concise, well-developed yet structurally simple texts beginning and intermediate EFL students need (Appelt, 1984; Wells, 1985; Mikulecky, 1990; Beard, 1991; Machura, 1991).

The beautifully illustrated book, *The Mountains of Tibet* by Mordicai Gerstein deals in a very simple, gentle manner with the concept of reincarnation. It tells the story of a man who dies and then has the chance to be reborn in any form he chooses, anywhere in the universe. This book, less than twenty pages long, is a complete yet profound story which may be appreciated in different ways depending on the experience of the reader.

Another feature of many children's books, which is an essential ingredient in the development of literacy, is the narrative form. Narratives can help "reduce the cognitive load" (Beard, 1991, p. 187) with their conventional openings and closings, extreme characterizations, and universal themes—beauty, evil, love, death, war, relationships, or personal challenges. "The emotional impact of literature is the major reason it serves us so well in handing down the magic or reading" (Cullinan, 1992a, p. xv). By utilizing children's literature, teachers can offer their students texts that have good storylines where something exciting, suspenseful, frightening, or funny happens. "If we are to understand the relation of storytelling to literacy, we must see the role and nature of narrative as a means by which human beings, everywhere, represent and structure their world. We not only thrive on stories; we also survive by telling and retelling them, as history, discovery, and invention" (Meek, 1983, p. 103). Since narrative structure is not the same for every culture (Mikulecky, 1990), children's stories may help learners to become familiar with the topic-based nature of the English narrative form. It can also serve the purpose of ordering one's thoughts (Beard, 1991) and organizing comprehension (Mandler and Johnson, in Carrell, 1990) and hence an understanding of the narrative form may be essential for a better grasp of language and culture. The story *Five Minutes' Peace,* by Jill Murphy illustrates the English narrative structure of three parts: at the beginning the mother wants a few minutes to herself and so she seeks the solitude of a bath; gradually all the children find excuses for interrupting her bath and then join her in the tub; at last the mother escapes to the kitchen where she can be alone for exactly 3 minutes and 45 seconds. The book not only tells a simple story but introduces the concept of privacy, the fact that in American culture it is all right to want some time to oneself.

Children's literature gives students the opportunity to read a large quantity of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1988). "Beginning readers of L2 need text that is much the same structurally as that used by beginner readers of L1 — short sentences, repetitious words and phrases, not too many unknowns, and illustrations" (Hughes, 1992, p. 19). Moreover, children's literature provides a discourse in the "sustained, cumulative build up of related episodes" (Meek, 1991, p. 111), how one thing follows and is related to another; and gives students experience with "the sustained organization or written language and its characteristic rhythms and structures" (Wells, 1985, p. 251).

In *Picking Peas for a Penny,* by Angela Shelf Medearis, the author tells a heartwarming African-American story about life on her grandfather's farm during the Depression using the rhyme and rhythm of poetry.

> Now times were hard, and times
> were tough,
> so picking peas for a living was
> plenty good enough.
> 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and
> 6, 7, 8, 9, 10.
> Now it's time for my story to begin.
> Picking peas for a penny
> plenty of work to be done,
> in a field full of peas
> under the morning sun.

Beard (1991) says that rhyme seems to be related to hearing the phonology of English. Rhyme "can be devoured by the ears as well as the eyes" (Beard, 1991, p. 238). In the book *Pass the Fritters, Critters*, by Cheryl Chapman, a young boy is asking different animals to pass him some food. He says, for example, "Pass the cantaloupe, Antelope" or "Pass the honey, Bunny." An interesting feature of this story is that in addition to teaching rhyme, it introduces social skills required at mealtime in America. When we ask someone to pass some food, we usually add the word, 'please.' The text also provides readers with several alternatives to the word 'no' in a fun, entertaining format, "sorry," "forget it," "you must be dreamin'."

In English it is the writer who is charged with making clear, well-organized statements (Hinds, 1987) which means that to read in English one is not required to read and understand every word (Mikulecky, 1990). This contrasts sharply with Japanese where it is the responsibility of the reader to ferret out what the author intended to say, requiring a careful word-by-word reading of a text (ibid.). Good children's books contain examples of clear, well-organized writing and thus are ideal for helping students to overcome their predisposition to read, and translate, every word. Flickinger states that in children's literature "stories are more directly told with fewer digressions and more obvious relationships between characters and actions or between the characters themselves" (1994, p. 5). The story *When I Was Young in the Mountains*, by Cynthia Rylant, is an example of a book in which the relationships between the characters are clearly defined. It is the story of a girl growing up in the Appalachian mountains and it describes in simple detail a way of life and the closeness of a family. The illustrations complement the text perfectly and as one reviewer (*The Advocate*) comments, the book "sings both visually and verbally" (Rylant, 1982, inside cover).

We are able to facilitate language learning by means of children's literature not only because of the qualities it possesses but also the ways in which we use it: by reading stories aloud, by having students read extensively, by allocating class time for sustained silent reading, by providing for shared reading experience, and by developing students' reading skills and strategies.

Since English has become the language of communication, motivating our students to learn to read in English may be the greatest gift we can bestow upon them. Beyond the pragmatic language skills taught in communicative language classes, students need to be able to read in the language in which much of the information of the world is exchanged, or what Prabhu calls the "knowledge paradigm" (Rost, 1990, p. 5). Children's literature has great potential for being used in the language classroom. By using children's books to teach our students reading, we are not only helping them to develop the skills necessary to learn the "knowledge paradigm," but because children's literature covers such a wide range of topics, issues, and values,

> [it]...offers a permanent link with the cultural legacy of a society and an omnipresent opportunity to contribute to its 'mind-pool.' Most of all, perhaps, it trains individuals to think beyond an immediate context and to consider image as a tool for crafted communication in settings other than their own and into which the possibilities of a second language can be realized. (Beard, 1991, p. 241)

This is not to say that we should be teaching our students to adopt a different set of values but "It is teaching another way of thinking about language, an alternative way of interpreting text, a different consciousness, complete with values and attitudes which are likely to be at odds with the students' own" (Mikulecky, 1990, p. 10). Teaching about values is a part of teaching reading. Through children's literature students can 'experience' new situations, culture, and information while at the same time improving their English skills in a pleasurable way.

> You can go to places you could never go in real life through books ... You also open doors for [students] by sharing the values — honesty, loyalty, courage — conveyed in books. But the most important value, that of reading itself, helps to make us human by allowing us to see the world from inside the skin of another person. (Cullinan, 1992, p.24)

This is indeed 'MAGIC.'

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Reading Activites in the Communicative Classroom

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A Rationale

The emphasis in teaching reading has shifted from a focus on what students learn through reading to the cognitive process of reading and how to teach students to become better readers. Chief among the approaches of better readers are the use of background knowledge, awareness of text structure, and reading strategies (Shih, 1992).

The following lesson outlines how teachers might develop these student reading skills within a communicative lesson for college students at the upper intermediate level. The lesson progresses from a consideration of students' background knowledge to reading on the literal level of reading comprehension, scanning for facts, and details, to reading on the interpretive and expressive levels of reading comprehension for inferences, generalizations, and opinions.

The Text

The best articles often raise the issue of cross-cultural values. Besides finding articles in newspapers and magazines, many suitable pieces have been anthologized. These include Martin Gansberg's famous article "38 Who Saw Murder Didn't Call the Police," about the stabbing of Kitty Genovese in New York City and Roger Caras's "A Bull Terrier Named Mackerel," a comic memoir about the escapades of a neighbourhood dog.

The reading in this lesson is of an authentic text drawn from the weekend edition of *The Atlanta Constitution*, March 9, 1985, "Woman's Suicide Bid With Her Children A Cultural Tragedy." In this case, the text is a feature article of about 2,000 words on Fumiko Kimura, a Japanese woman living in America who took her children and attempted *oyako-shinju*, parent-child suicide after learning that her husband, Itsuroku, had been having an affair.

The Reading Lesson

(a) Pre-reading

The lesson begins with pre-reading activities. The teacher leads the class in a discussion of cross-cultural problems they might have experienced. Additionally, the teacher asks the students to skim the headlines of the text and the captions for the photographs and to make predictions about the content of the article. These predictions are listed on the board for future reference.

Learning to access this background knowledge is an important factor in improving the students' reading comprehension. Studies indicate that students who are non-native speakers of English with good conceptual knowledge of a reading selection will understand and recall the information more easily than other readers (Barnitz, 1986; Carrell, Pharis, and Liberto 1989; Carrell, 1987; Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983, and Swaffer 1988).

(b) Literal Comprehension

This begins once the students have read the text. Questioning by the teacher, and their peers, and subsequent activities lead students from the literal to interpretive and expressive levels of reading comprehension. The students start with answering questions requiring factual recall, and finding the main idea and supporting details in the text. At the interpretive level, readers infer cause and effect relationships, comparisons, and generalizations from the text. At the expressive level of comprehension, students articulate their feelings and opinions about issues raised by the text.

During their initial reading of the story, the students are asked to use the 5W and 1H strategy for newspaper stories, and narrative texts. They generate questions to answer: What happened? Who was involved in this attempted suicide? When did it happen? Where did it occur? Why did it happen? How was Fumiko rescued?

The strategy is selective, allowing students to look at one aspect of the text instead of trying to comprehend it entirely (Richards, 1983). It helps them set a purpose for their first reading of the text yet is easy enough to remember and apply frequently so that students become accustomed to using it (Shih, 1992).

Then the students are given about five minutes to scan the text to answer their questions. Afterward, students compare their answers to check the effectiveness of their use of the 5W and 1H reading strategy.

(c) Interpretive Level of Comprehension

Key visuals are used for the next reading of the text and for the small group discussions that promote comprehension at the interpretive and expressive levels. Each visual provides a different focus for a discussion of the text and members make notes or fill in charts and tables.

The first group works with an Incident and Explanation grid and group members choose five important events in the article and try to explain the cause of each through re-reading the text and discussing it (see Figure 1). A second group works with a Relationship Web to list the individuals in the story and their principal relationships with the central character, Fumiko Kimura (see Figure 2). A third group is given a Character Profile to check for inferences about Fumiko Kimura's personality (see Figure 3). A fourth group is given another Character Profile and re-reads the story checking for inferential information about the character of her husband, Itsuroku Kimura. The fifth group uses a flow-chart to list the main events in the story (see Figure 4).

The students' oral production is genuinely communicative during this small group activity because it is negotiated, and altered through their interactions with one another (Ellis, 1982). Meanwhile the teacher moves from group to group, encouraging students, and modelling language. This is done through repetition, and expansion of the students' remarks, and by prompting them (Ellis, ibid). In addition, teacher questioning here: How did Fumiko cope with her new culture? Was she a good mother? Why did Itsuroku have an affair? can help develop their critical thinking skills. The groups finish their discussions and complete their visuals.

(d) Expressive Level of Comprehension

Then the teacher forms new groups for an information-gap activity where there is at least one member from each of the five previous groups. Each student now has a unique contribution to make to a new group. After each member has explained his or her visual, then the group chooses one as the basis for a written assignment, a further activity at the expressive level of comprehension. Certain visuals lend themselves to particular kinds of writing: an Incident and Explanation grid to a cause and effect paragraph, a Relationship Web to a descriptive paragraph, a Character Profile to a character sketch, and a Flow Chart to a descriptive paragraph (Mohan, 1986).

Speaking Activities

An alternative at the expressive level might be a class role play or a mini-debate. To set up the first activity, the teacher prepares an envelope with the names of different people who appear in the article on slips of paper. Each student draws a name and then skims the article to find out at least three things about their character. All the names are written on the board for student reference. Afterward, students walk freely around the room trying to guess one another's identities by asking questions such as "Are you male or female? How old are you? What do you think of Fumiko's suicide attempt?"

Mini-debates are informal arguments where students working in groups prepare arguments, in this case about whether or not Fumiko is guilty of murder. After the students have prepared their arguments, the teacher divides the class into two lines sitting opposite one another, and students argue against one another. After a few minutes, the teacher changes partners by rotating the groups: one clock-wise; the other, counter-clock-wise.

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Figures

Figure 1

INCIDENT	EXPLANATION
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

Figure 2

A Relationship Map

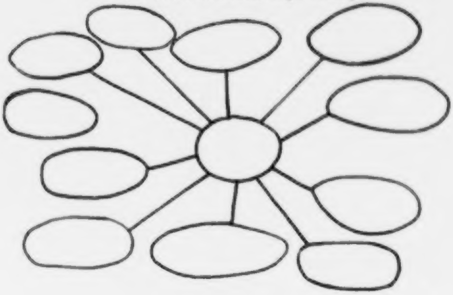
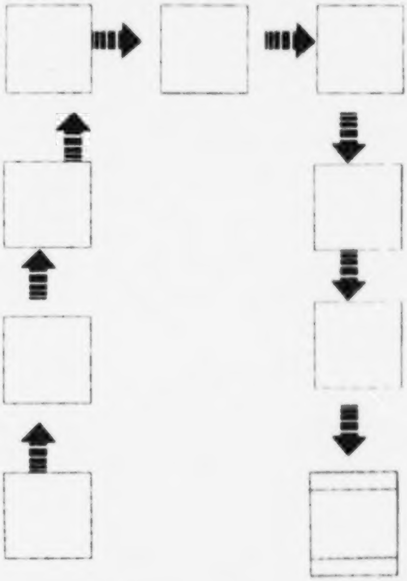


Figure 3

Character Profile:
Fumiko Kimura

Figure 4

A Flowchart of Events



Cross-Border Peer Journals in EFL

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In trying to teach cross-cultural awareness to students in an EFL setting, teachers employ a variety of approaches and methods. Communicative activities such as roleplaying and journal writing are often effective in helping students to consider intercultural issues. For many EFL teachers, however, providing students with a final functional test or experience in which to use their newly acquired cross-cultural awareness is difficult. For example, student travel and visits to the classroom by representatives of another culture can be impractical. This paper explores an alternative method of peer journal writing in which students in two different countries are united in a joint learning activity. The use of peer responses in teaching ESL/EFL has become a popular way of instilling in student writers a sense of audience and purpose by engaging them in authentic communication (Raimes, 1983, pp. 8-9), and of exposing them to other points of view (Bell, 1991, p. 65; Devenney, 1989, p. 86; Mangelsdorf, 1992, pp. 278-279). In cross-border peer journal exchanges, the students work on the same material, write journals on the topic of the material, exchange journals with the students in the other country and respond to those students' journals. This method mimics the use of in-class peer journal exchanges, except that each student's partner is in another country since the "classroom" encompasses two countries.

The Japanese-Thai Exchange Project

From June to July, 1995, 16 students in one of my intensive English writing classes participated in a writing exchange with a group of 14 students at Chiang Mai University in Thailand. The students in both countries read the same article about an Japanese ex-soldier who returns to Thailand regularly to give scholarships to needy children. The students then wrote journals focusing on their reaction to the article. Each class sent their journals to the other class. When the teachers received the journals from the other class, they distributed them to their students and had the students write responses to the other students' papers. Each student read and responded to the paper of the student who received theirs in the other country. Finally, after the students received the responses to their journals, they wrote a final journal focusing on their reaction to an article about a proposal by economists to have rich countries pay for preserving forests.

Getting Started

With the goal of arranging a journal writing exchange with a college in another Asian country, I attended a reception for international participants at the 1995 TESOL conference in Long Beach, California. I chose Asia for the exchange because there is currently a strong interest in Japan in promoting better relations with Asian countries and in increasing cross-cultural awareness. I wanted my students to be in the forefront of efforts in this direction. I met teachers interested in doing an exchange from many countries both in Asia and elsewhere. After returning to Japan, I followed up on the contacts and succeeded in setting up the exchange with Chiang Mai University in Thailand.

Important Factors in Arranging The Exchange

Student Type: It was important to me that the exchange partners also be college or university students so that my students could respect them as true peers. I felt that exchanges with children or non-academic learners would have left my students feeling uncomfortable. I also wanted students of a similar level and similar point in their college studies. Since my partner teacher's class consisted of students in their junior year, I chose one of my sophomore, rather than freshman, classes to participate. As it happened, the students' ages happened to match very closely. In addition, the vast majority, perhaps even all, of the students in both countries were English majors. Finally, in an interesting coincidence, both classes consisted primarily of female students, with only one male student in each class.

School Calendars: Since school calendars vary around the globe, it can often be difficult to find a mutually convenient time to work together when both schools are in session. Our semester began in April, while theirs began in early June. Our semester ended in mid-July. That meant that we only had 5 weeks within which to work. We began planning in May so that we could initiate the exchange as soon as the Thai semester started.

Topics for Discussion: To increase the sense of purpose in the writing task, I tried to select topics that involved Japan and Thailand and that might involve differing points of view. I liked the article about the ex-soldier since it brought up the topic of the conflict between the two Asian countries in World War II in a very non-confrontational manner focusing on the efforts of one man to help other people. The article about who should pay for forest preservation also seemed to be a good one since it highlighted the traditional gap between the views in industrialized countries such as Japan and developing countries such as Thailand concerning solutions to global environmental problems. By selecting topics about issues that students in the two countries could be expected to view from different perspectives, I hoped to maximize the curiosity of the students about each others' opinions.

Transferring the Journals: Considerations in transferring the journals were the time and the expense required. Each teacher mailed the journals together in one envelope by airmail. The letters took about one week to reach their destination. Sending the journals by e-mail would have been quicker and less expensive, but my students had no e-mail access. In our case, the school paid the postage for the students' letters. At Chiang Mai University, however, the students together paid for the postage.

Communication Between Teachers: Facilitating the exchange required much discussion. Before and during the exchange we needed to exchange frequent messages to clarify our goals and discuss the details our plans. E-mail proved to be an important means of communicating. If either of us was slow in sending or reading e-mail messages, however, occasional breakdowns in communication occurred. For example, once students read different articles in the two countries. After I learned that the Thai students had read the article about preserving the forests, rather than one on earthquake preparedness, I had to ask my students to write on the topic of forests as well. In a different case, students were mismatched, so students responded to students in the other country who were not responding to them. We solved this by sharing the letters and having students respond to other students' partners when necessary. Sharing letters solved other problems as well. Since there were more Japanese students than Thai students, some Thai students needed to be matched with two partners. In a few instances, we had no response from a student's partner, a common problem with writing exchanges (Warschauer, 1995, p. 49). Sharing the letters also exposed the students to a broader range of ideas and opinions than would have been possible if they had only read their partner's response.

Explaining the Exercise to Students: The students needed to know what we would be doing and how to begin. I explained that a group of students in Thailand were willing to do a writing exchange with them and that I had chosen a reading about Japan and Thailand to discuss. The students were very interested and I gave them the reading. Since the Thai students had expressed an interest in getting to know the Japanese students a little before they began giving their opinions on article topics, I instructed my students to write a brief self-introduction followed by their reaction to the article. The Thai students did the same.

One issue raised in the article, World War II atrocities in Thailand, was one that made some of my students nervous. Some expressed a collective feeling of guilt about actions taken in World War II. They worried about what the Thai students' reaction to the article and especially to their own responses would be. They voiced concern that in their second language they might not be able to express their ideas clearly and might risk offending the Thai students. To allay their concerns, I told them that the Thai students had not chosen the topic and would probably also prefer a more lighthearted topic. I said that they could find out what the Thai students thought by doing the exchange. I explained that this was a college writing project, rather than a simple pen pal exchange, so I had chosen a more serious topic.

Other students said that they had little or no knowledge of Japan's actions in Asia during World War II and wanted to know more about the building of the Thai-Burma railway, which was briefly discussed in the article. They asked why it was being built and what specifically it would transport. They also asked who the laborers were and what percentage died constructing it. I told them that I was not a historian, but that I could answer some questions. One student in his mid-sixties in our class was quite knowledgeable about war and explained the Imperial Army's intentions in building the railway.

Acting as a intercultural facilitator: I needed to explain why the other students wrote with the type of handwriting they did. My students were initially concerned that some of the Thai students' handwriting wasn't very good. I explained that outside of Japan, poor handwriting doesn't necessarily indicate a lack of sincerity, and that, indeed, I myself as an American care very little about the quality of a person's handwriting as long as the writing is legible. In addition, I needed to point out that one's first language writing system can have an effect on one's second language handwriting. The Thai script is very different from English script and from English printing. In fact, some of the Thai students' handwriting show pronounced similarity to Thai script.

Being an interpreter: I occasionally needed to explain to my students what a Thai student had written. Since all students were learners of English, there was sometimes some doubt as to whether the student in the other country had used a real word or expression, or had simply made a mistake. I was called on to be both an interpreter and judge of the other students' English.

The Results

The outcome of the project was pleasing to both students and teachers. My students reported having an increased interest in Thai and other Asian cultures, and a new awareness of both their Asian peers' opinions and their own opinions. In addition, they reported learning not only points of view never represented in their own classroom, but also new expressions in English that their classmates never used. The Japanese students also reported surprise at the Thai students' knowledge of Japanese and of Japan. They reported feeling closer to Thailand and formed friendships. In fact, about a quarter of my students have maintained correspondence with their Thai partners and one recently visited Chiang Mai, Thailand after writing to her partner. My students indicated they prefer doing an exchange with another country to an in-class one and want to do more of this type of activity.

From the teaching standpoint, the activity proved very worthwhile. The task was motivating. The teacher in Chiang Mai reported that her students truly enjoyed writing to the Japanese students. Their enthusiasm was matched in our classroom. The students' awareness of audience as they wrote was also very apparent, both from the concern with which they asked me questions about their writing and from the way in which the text of their letters anticipated the opinions of the students in the other country. The use of authentic readings as stimuli provided good sources of language appropriate to the topics. In turn the use of the other students' writing as stimuli provided further authentic material, increasing motivation. The difficulty of the controversial topics also challenged the students to use critical thinking in discussing their views and their suggestions to solve the problems discussed in the articles. Their curiosity and interest in their partners' views led to communicative exchange of ideas. Finally, the students increased their cross-cultural awareness.

Alternatives

Cross-border peer journal exchanges share features with other useful types of writing exchanges. In the ongoing project at Helsinki University of Technology, students in different countries collaborate on research projects communicating by e-mail in English. In this type of exchange, as with the Japanese-Thai exchange, coordinating the project and managing communication between students proved to be important concerns (Vilmi, 1994, pp. 5-11). At Toyama University, students in a course on international relations are exchanging opinions with students at a German university via e-mail about war responsibility and compensation of war victims. As the students did in the Japanese-Thai exchange, students in this project are first studying the issues, then exchanging opinions about them. ("Students to exchange," 1995, p. 2). Finally, at Arizona State University, a journal exchange between different ESL classes at the same university yielded similar results to the Japanese-Thai exchange in terms of high student motivation, positive feedback from students about what they learned, and the formation of new friendships (Dietz, 1995, p. 21).

Conclusion

The Japanese-Thai project was very rewarding. Although carrying out a cross-border peer journal exchange does require time, effort, and patience, the benefits clearly make it a worthwhile activity. Students are highly motivated by the contact with a peer in another country. By engaging in a communicative exchange, the students' sense of audience and sense of purpose are strengthened. At the same time, the students are given the opportunity to take advantage of the kind of cross-cultural experience, usually found only in ESL settings, that is so valuable in preparing to communicate effectively in international and multicultural situations.

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Motivating Students to Write: Activities from Three Different Classrooms

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The purpose of this paper is to introduce several approaches to the teaching of writing that the authors have experimented with in their individual university/college writing classes. While the activities themselves vary, we share similar ideas about how learners can be motivated to write and the goals that can be reasonably set in Japanese institutions. We have found through experience that students are more motivated to write when they are given opportunities to express their own ideas on a topic, and when they are encouraged to find ways to express those ideas. We see the role of the instructor as a facilitator and resource for students rather than as the dispenser of knowledge about how to write. Our goal is to help students become more fluent, independent writers and to enjoy writing as a means of self-expression.

Our own experience is confirmed by current trends in the teaching of writing in EFL/ESL classrooms (Silva, 1990). The process approach to writing encourages students to develop their own ideas and explore different ways to express those ideas. However, we want to point out that accuracy and attention to form are also legitimate concerns in writing. We think there is a need for striking a balance between self-exploration and creativity, on the one hand, and teaching the conventions of writing and the expectations of an educated readership, on the other.

Furthermore, the realities of the language classroom in Japan need to be taken into consideration when planning a writing course. Precisely what previous experience with written English have students had before they reach university? According to one recent study (Okada, 1995, p. 4), most Japanese students' experience with English composition has been limited to translation exercises of single sentences. This indicates that many students have had little experience writing anything extensive or original, and they have not been given an opportunity to write for a specific audience in a meaningful way.

In order find a balance between approaches to writing and to take into account students' previous experience, we think that activities work best if they follow the general guidelines outlined below. Activities should:

1. encourage students to write as a means of self-expression on topics of personal interest;
2. encourage students to focus on the content of language first and then on the form; and
3. help develop a sense of audience

Furthermore, some of these activities integrate the other skills areas of speaking and listening as a means to help students explore their ideas and develop a sense of audience.

The following sections will briefly describe three different approaches to the writing instruction used in our classrooms.

Project Writing

The activities described in this section were used in a junior college classroom with English majors. (guidelines for project writing were based on Brown's (1994) idea of intrinsic motivation; people engage in activities for their own sakeand not for extrinsic rewards. The guidelines were:

1. learning should be the integration of the four skills
2. learning should be meaningful and content-based
3. learning should appeal to the interests of students
4. learning should develop autonomy
5. learning should foster cooperative negotiation with other students in the class
6. learning should present a reasonable challenge

To motivate students to participate in projects, the following practical considerations were used in the design of project work.

Oral presentation of work

Written work was presented orally to the class as the culmination of projects. This final stage of the project was felt to have several merits. First, students develop a specific image of the audience; they know for whom they are writing and can focus on how they want to appeal to their audience. Secondly, oral presentation offers a further incentive to communicate effectively.

Group work

Compared with individual work, group work generates more information and helps students evaluate ideas. (Shaw, 1976; Egan, 1973; Bales, 1973). Furthermore, group work promotes social cohesion. Students need to cooperate to achieve both group and individual objectives. In addition, studies done on cooperative learning (Slavin, 1983) indicate the potential for some aspects of this method producing academic success.

Teacher feedback and error correction

The initial stages of each project focused on generating ideas and developing strategies for presenting ideas. Error correction and teacher feedback on organization was left until the final stages of the project. This decision to delay error correction was made from the observation that students were only interested in grammatical accuracy as a means of sharpening their message and adding polish to their oral presentations.

Project Activities

Kamishibai

Each group wrote a scenario to accompany stories read together in class. Students drew pictures to go with the story, similar to the Japanese *kamishibai*. By rewriting stories, students tried to understand the situation and identify with the characters in the story. During their *kamishibai* performances, students were eager to see how other groups had interpreted the stories.

Research presentation
Students chose topics from lessons studied in class and made a presentation based on their research findings. Students were encouraged to work out their own research methods. Methods students used were gathering interviews, conducting a survey, field trips, and the use of reference material in the library. Actual preparation and writing took four weeks, culminating in oral presentations in class.

Debates
Students were given a crash course in debating techniques during two class periods. Students then spent three weeks researching their topic, writing constructive speeches and preparing argumentation sheets. The instructor reviewed all written work, giving suggestions on content and checking misleading surface errors. After all teams participated in debates, they were given a chance to rewrite their speeches, prepare more data, and counter any refutation they might meet. These debates were conducted a second time with marked improvement.

Student evaluation of projects
Student response to these projects was very positive. Students said they had learned a lot about their topics and had been challenged to explore ways to express their ideas in English. They also found group work helpful and enjoyable. Student comments showed that they had been motivated and gained confidence through project writing and presentation.

Free writing
This section describes activities used to motivate students, first-year economics majors, to write in English with the aim of improving fluency. The instructor emphasized at the beginning that the main purpose of the class was to learn to write to express themselves and to communicate their ideas to others. It is the instructors belief that language is most successfully acquired when it is related to one's inner self. Furthermore, in the opinion of the instructor, writing skills are improved by *writing*, not by studying *about* writing, as is often done in Japan. The activities that worked most successfully were free-style essay writing and secret-friend letter exchanges.

Feedback and error correction
The instructor limited her response to the positive aspects of students' work in order to foster a positive attitude toward writing. Studies (Okada, 1995; Shizuka, 1993) show that peer response to writing, not overt teacher correction of surface errors, leads to an improvement in content and structure, and is more effective in the long run.

The following techniques were used to give students feedback on written work:

1. student-teacher conferences to help students clarify their ideas;
2. sharing student work with the whole class using OHP or handouts;
3. peer response on content;
4. editing with the use of a correction guide.

Activities
1. Free-style essays

To encourage students to write on a variety of topics, the instructor used a textbook of funny and touching true stories that would appeal to college freshman. After reading these, students were given a few titles related to the reading and relevant to their own lives. They then chose one of the titles to use as a theme for their own writing. Another technique was to show a movie with some appeal to young people, such as *Awakenings* or *Rain Man, as* a stimulus or incentive to write Much of this writing was original, personal, and creative.

2. Secret friend letter exchange

This activity was derived from Green and Green's (1993) *Secret Friend Journal.* Two merits of this activity are that, 1) each student has an interested reader other than the teacher, and 2) the teacher's responsibility for responding to a large number of papers each week is lightened. Each student wrote to a partner whose identity was secret, each person using a fictitious name they chose. As Green suggests, secret names "give the activity a game-like air of mystery which is highly motivating" (1993, p. 21). Students were paired either by letting them select a partner whose introductory letter appealed to them or by matching students with similar interests. The teacher's only role was to collect and deliver the letters. Students indicated in their evaluations that this activity gave them a sense of genuine communication.

Student evaluation

Student response to these writing activities emphasizing self-expression was positive. They said that writing their thoughts freely was interesting and novel, and they felt relieved that it was not the typical grammar-centered class. They especially liked the secret friend letter activity, commenting that it was fun and also gave them confidence in their ability to communicate in English. This activity also seemed to improve fluency measured in terms of the increased number of words as more letters were exchanged.

Dictation

Dictation activities were used with university freshmen economics majors. From past experience, the instructor found it was unreasonable to expect students to write more than a few short sentences on a given topic and these were often marred by surface errors and incorrect use of punctuation and format. The eventual goal for the first semester was to provide students with enough writing practice to write a coherent paragraph on a topic of personal interest.

To build fluency and accuracy, a variety of dictation activities were used regularly over a three month period. The instructor relied on many ideas presented in *Dictation* by Davis and Rinvolucri (1990), making adjustments frequently to fit specific groups.

Objectives of dictation

The use of dictation served two objectives: 1) model-related, and 2) as a writing stimulus. The first objective, modeling, was to reinforce mechanical skills, such as capitalization and punctuation, and to develop accuracy with basic grammatical patterns. The second objective, as a stimulus for writing, was to use the dictated material, at times, to introduce a topic and let students write about the same topic from their own perspective, or to act as a springboard into another related topic.

Dictation as a cooperative effort

To build a spirit of cooperation among students and to give them a more active role, the instructor had students give dictations to the whole class or work in pairs or small groups. At a very early stage in class work the instructor read a short passage at normal speed twice. Students were invited to ask for repetition of any parts of the passage, change in reading speed, or spelling help. Another techniques was to model a passage twice and then ask for volunteers to read it to the class.

Feedback and error correction

Another practical consideration was correction or evaluation of dictations. In the early stages the instructor was interested in developing accuracy, so that corrections went hand in hand with comprehension. When students were satisfied that they had written as much as they could, they shared their work with a partner or group. Then students "dictated" their written work back to the instructor or another student who acted as secretary, and this was recorded on the board. Since errors were taken down as they were read, the next step was to ask students to try to identify and correct errors individually and as a group. Finally, students rewrote their corrected versions. Since corrections were left to the students, it provided a non-threatening way for students to monitor their own work and also saved the instructor valuable time. Short paragraphs written on the board could be used to point out mechanical features, such as paragraph form, as well as points of grammar and organization.

Dictations and work generated from them were done in students' individual notebooks which were used for the duration of the course. These were collected occasionally to make note of improvements and for teacher comments.

Source of dictated material

The instructor limited material used for dictation to something students had read in class or that had been part of a class discussion. The more familiar the vocabulary the more likely students were to recognize what they were hearing and grasp the overall meaning of sentences. To prevent these dictations from becoming rote drills the instructor found that material which was open-ended worked best to stimulate further writing. These might be a description of a problem for which students could suggest several solutions, an incomplete story that students finished on their own, or an opinion about something which students argued for or against.

Instructor evaluation

Dictation provided the instructor with a kind of window on what students could do and what they still found difficult. Students' reaction to dictation was that it was difficult at first, but as they gained more confidence in their listening abilities they found it challenging to respond in writing to ideas presented orally.

Conclusion

While these descriptions have been necessarily brief, we hope they have provided some indication of the variety of activities that are possible in college level writing classes. Choosing activities requires consideration of both teacher goals and student abilities and needs. Through our own experience, however, the most important ingredients for the success of these activities are a genuine interest in what students want to say and activities that allow students to take an active role.

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Student Publishing: The Value of Controlled Chaos

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Introduction

Newspapers have a long history of use as learning tools in language classrooms. Information on their possible uses is available from a number of prominent authors. Suggestions from educators include those on using news articles for reading passages, news headlines for discussion topics, and news stories as models for writing (cf. Grundy, 1993), and the use of newspapers to motivate oral production (Ryan, 1995). Numerous texts even suggest the production of a "class newspaper" as a writing project (cf. Ingram and King, 1988). There are, in fact, a myriad of valid and useful ways for the language teacher at Japanese schools to use the news. In addition to "using the news," students can benefit from taking part in the journalistic process. Complete immersion into the production of a class news artifact, either a news letter, newspaper or news magazine, both gives students a reason to use their English skills to communicate and provides a more realistic picture of the hectic pace of most work places.

Consider first, the environment of a news room. Chaotic is a word observers often apply to one. Editors, reporters, copy editors, and production personnel are all working for the same thing—the distribution of the news to the readers. However, the news room seems anything but controlled—phones ring, computer terminals glow with ever changing stories, editors revise, and reporters and photographers come and go with seeming irregularity. While an observer might despair and wonder how the news ever got out at all, the veteran knows this chaos is a necessary component. There must be the flexibility to work independently or in tandem. The news room is full of areas of overlapping responsibility.

In contrast to the chaos of the news room, the typical Japanese classroom is generally a controlled environment. This is reflected in the characteristic of Japanese learners not to ask questions "even when encouraged" (Doyle, 1994, p. 15). At the high school level, until recently students have had little chance to use English for any "real" purpose, with texts and courses of study, even under the implementation of the new Oral Curriculum, determined by the Ministry of Education (Gould, Madeley, & Carter, 1993; Carter, Gould, & Madeley, 1993; Gould, Carter, & Madeley, 1994). Unfortunately, some suggest that "the new curriculum is unlikely to be implemented as conceived, no matter how beneficial to the Japanese learner" (Knight, 1995, p. 21). At the college level, the teacher generally determines the text, the method of study, the topics for discussion, the types of out of class work necessary. Teachers make a multitude of decisions that control the classroom environment—from seating to testing.

Students do, however, need to realize that independent action is the norm, rather than the exception, in the work world. With little freedom of independent action given to Japanese students in the typical classroom situation but the need to introduce students to a more independent methods of study to prepare them for the chaos of the work, production of a news artifact, whether it is a newspaper or news magazine, provides a compromise between control and chaos.

A Framework for Controlling Chaos

Determining Resources

Once the educator has decided that their students would benefit from the process of news production, they need to determine if the resources are available for the task to be successful. In addition to access to computers, printers and software, some type of press (either copiers or mimeographs), and access to a supply of paper is needed. This last point ascertains the number of issues, the size of each issue, and the possible press run. After determining the availability of the physical resources, the instructor must assess the student resources: their writing ability and level of English, their familiarity with news language, their interest and willingness, and their available time.

An additional resource that is not as readily identifiable is the students' and instructor's familiarity with the events occurring on and near campus. Early in the course, it is necessary to emphasize that students should report on what they know better than anyone else. By keeping the focus on the campus or on community events of interest to students , the news is fresh and informative, and the publication avoids any possible copyright infringement possible is students "revise" what was in another publication.

Setting up the Class: Organization & Preparation

Preparation is the key to survival. The news room requires reporters, proofreaders, editors, and production personnel. All students will need to take each role during the course of production, so it is essential that students understand what each job requires (Appendix 1) in order to clearly understand the duties they will undertake during the year-long process. All students will write for each issue, but dividing the jobs into manageable units allows teachers to work with small groups of students at each stage and for the students to assume greater control. One way to ensure that all students take part in each is to set up a production schedule (Appendix 2), with a different group of students as "editors" for each issue. Of course, as each news classroom functions differently, yearly adjustments may be necessary.

Reporters

Introducing students to the skills needed to prepare for an interview, conduct it, and turn the interview into a finished piece of writing, is the first step in turning second language writers into student reporters. As all students benefit from models, several should be provided.

One rule instructors might consider implementing is that a reporter must interview someone for every story. Again, this helps keep the news focused on what students know about or can talk to someone about. Appendices 3 and 4 include a model interview procedure and a sample of an interview turned into a story.

Preparation of possible news assignments, especially at the beginning of the year, can also help student reporters learn how to identify stories ideas. One of the common complaints of beginning reporters is "I don't know what to write about." Preparation of detailed assignments (Appendix 5) can both give a story and encourage them to determine their own story idea.

Proofreaders

The proofreading should be done first by the reporter, and then by an appointed proofreader. As with reporting, each student needs to take part in this. Appendix 6 gives a sample checklist for proofreaders to follow. Additional exercises that the instructor might develop include editing practices using a student story, exercises in headline writing, and work on grammatical forms common is news writing.

Editors

The editors are in charge of all aspects of their issue. Primarily, they need to be willing to exercise their authority for the issue, pushing reluctant writers to keep the production schedule, ensuring that stories have been proofread and headlines written, and deciding what other people need to be doing. For the editors, a primary need is a list of which reporter is writing which article. This can be done either with a sign up sheet or a story and page planner for the issue (Appendix 7). In any case, the instructor is there to back-up the editors. They will need to make the decision. If desired, they can even assign grades to other students based on participation during the issue.

Depending on the class organization, the editors may also be responsible for layout of their issue. In any case, those students doing the issue layout can benefit from first doing the layout on paper. If the class is using commercially available desk-top publishing, the articles can be printed out in the column format to make the layout easier and simpler. Graphic elements, captions and headlines can then be sized in. This allows each group to learn some of the basics of layout without having to worry about an unfamiliar computer program. The instructor can then assist them with the computer version and final printing.

Production Personnel

Although this task seems simple, unless the institution has a full-time print shop, students will need to reproduce, fold, collate, and distribute the news—the job of the production staff.

The Instructor

The primary duty of the instructor, once the basics of news writing and production are understood, is to help each group of editors, especially with layout and computer use, and provide language and computer support to writers. In addition, the instructor may find themselves in the position of providing story ideas to writers and editors, especially early in the course. However, once students become used to the idea of looking for stories, this should not be necessary. The instructor can be viewed as the managing editor, responsible for the overall operation, and let the issue editors take control of the student writers in regards to deadlines. In other words, they might "push" the editors to get the issue done, but the editors should undertake the task of getting recalcitrant writers to turn in their stories.

Other

Visual elements add variety to a publication. An instant camera, such as Polaroid, with black and white film provides the most useful photographic tool. Film can then be preserved and special development is not required. The camera can be "checked out" by reporters, or editors can request a specific picture to go with a story and send out another student to get it. Pictures that are not taken by students should, in principle, be avoided to prevent copyright violation. Student art and computer graphics should be encouraged. Non-copyrighted materials can be used freely.

Problems and Solutions

The classroom as news room is not without problems. Some can be solved. Others must simply be accepted. Briefly, the common problems and solutions we have come up with are:

1) Failure to meet deadlines —Make timeliness part of the grade; confront reporters; publish the issue without the story (if there is enough material available).
2) Incorrect story pattern —Remind writers of journalistic style; send the story back to the proofreaders or writers.
3) Poor grammar —Return to proofreaders; relax, no one expects the student newspaper to be perfect.
4) Weak headline —Return to proofreaders for new headline.
5) Computer problems — Provide more training, especially early in the course; assist students with inputting; provide step-by-step instructions (in English and Japanese) for use with the software programs available.
6) Odd layout —Have students examine the layout of other publications of a similar paper size to determine which elements

and layout styles "look good" and which should be avoided.

7) The issue isn't ready — Relax, these things happen; reschedule the publication date, remind editors their grade depends on the issues publication (they'll remind reporters).

These problems have occurred every year. Other difficulties will arise, but as long as the instructor maintains an accepting attitude all will be well. In other words, don't panic.

Finally, a note about what a news class will not do. Primarily, it will not force students to speak English to each other, although they should be encouraged to do so. It will not help them learn how to write academic papers, although it should help them become better proofreaders of their own writing. It will not be an easy class with minimal work for the instructor, but it will be satisfying for all involved when the product appears.

Conclusion: Living with Chaos

One of the hardest things for the instructor may be living with the chaos. The resulting confusion is, at first, daunting. However, if the instructor relaxes, allows the students to experience the joys and the pitfalls of writing and publishing, the results will be positive. By immersing students into the production of a class news artifact, students can use their English to communicate and receive a more realistic picture of the hectic pace of the real world.

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Appendix 1: News Production Jobs

Areas and Duties

Editors

You are responsible for your issue.

You must decide on the number of pages.

You must decide on the types of articles which are needed.

You must assign each reporter a story if they don't have an idea for one.

You must decide on the deadlines.

You must report to the teacher any student who misses a deadline.

You must write headlines for all the articles.

You must be responsible for any last minute changes.

Reporters

You must write articles.

You must suggest at least two headlines for each article.

You must type your articles into the computer.

You must prepare a selection of visual elements and put them into the computer.

Proofreaders

You must check the spelling.

You must check the grammar.

You must make sure there are headlines. You might have to write them.

Layout People

You must decide which article goes on each page.

You must decide the size of the headlines.

You must decide on the headline for each article.

You must whether to include any visuals with the article.

You must write a caption for each visual.

Production People

You must determine how many copies are needed.

You must make the needed number of copies.

You must collate and fold the copies.

You must distribute the copies.

Appendix 2: Sample Production Schedule

Appendix 2: Sample Production Schedule

Octopus Publishing Schedule 1995-96

	Issue #1	Issue #2	Issue #3	Issue #4	Issue #5
Editor	Nakamori	Kunieda	Fujisawa	Ueno	Kuwada
Assistant Editors	Kurata Takeda Tanaka	Yokoi Minatodani Namba Tsutumi	Maki Aoki Numata Kobashiri	Iwai Mori Kadokawa Uno	Ayai Nagaoka Hanatani Yamashita
On Newsstands	July 12	October 19	November 22	December 13	January 24
Production	July 10	October 13-14	November 16-17	December 7-8	January 18-19
Final Computer Print-out	July 5	October 12	November 15	December 6	January 17
Layout	June 7 - July 5	October 5-12	November 8-15	November 29 - December 6	January 10-17
Editing and Checking	June 7 - July 5	End of September	End of October	Middle of November	Middle of December
Writing	June	Middle of September	Middle of October	Beginning of November	Beginning of December

Appendix 3: Model Interview Procedure

Interview to stories

Get a partner. You are going to interview another Seminar II member and write a story about her. There are several steps in the process of interviewing a person and writing a story (of course, I want you to do it in English).

1. Decide what you know already about the person.
   You know she is an OJJC student, in the Newspaper Seminar. You know what she studied in the first year at OJJC. You know what her general background is (lives in Japan, is about 20 years old, likes English).
   You do not need to ask very much about these things in an interview. You should know them before you do the interview.

2. Decide what you do not know.
   These are things you are interested in learning about the person.
   Write out the questions you might want to ask on a piece of paper.

3. Conduct the Interview
   During the interview, don't rely on your questions all the time. You made the questions to give you something to BEGIN the interview. You want to continue it to find out interesting things because that's what people want to read.

4. Make sure you ask at least 5 questions not on your question list.

5. Writing up the interview.
   Decide what your readers (other students) are interested in knowing.
   These are things that other people might want to read about the person. In other words, what makes this person different or interesting.
   What are the unusual things about her.

6. The most interesting thing should be first.
   Don't write your story by just copying your questions and her answers. Make it into a story that DESCRIBES and ILLUSTRATES what she is like.

7. Type your interview and turn it in next class.
   Your article should be double-spaced (not triple). Use Macwrite II in the computer lab to write your story.

Possible interview questions: (These are only examples).

What is the most interesting thing you have ever done? Why did you do it? What happened? Could you describe it?

Have you ever been in a dangerous situation? When? Where? What happened?

Which class did you find the most difficult during your first year at OJJC? Why? Who was the teacher? What made the class difficult?

What changes are you planning to make to your life during the next year? Why?

What did you do during spring vacation? What was the most interesting point? What did you learn? Would you do it again?

Appendix 4: Basic Information for Student Writers

Information for Student Writers

What makes a story interesting?
What makes a story informative?

It gives information.
It tells readers something new.
It talks about an event that has happened or will happen.
It quotes people directly and indirectly.
It has several people quoted (by name).
It gives more than one point of view.

Stories should put the newest, most important, or most unique thing first.

Lacrosse team defeats Konan University 4-3.

Students report little success in job hunts.

Wilmina Children's Hospital opens in Bangladesh.

Then, the story should follow with a quote or another piece of important information.

The Lacrosse team captain, Eriko Kitamura, said "It was a good game. We are very happy to beat a four year school."

Interviews with students indicate that only 45 percent have obtained job offers. The career guidance said that last year nearly 70 percent had jobs at this time .

OJJC students raised nearly ¥40 million through donations and corporate sponsorships in the last six years to fund the hospital.

The story continues with a mix of quotes, additional new information and important background information.

The Lacrosse team has won three games this season. "We want to win enough to move to the next division," team member Azusa Terada said.

"Job hunting is really hard," said one student who has not found a job. "None of my friends have job offers.

The OJJC Student Association began the campaign to build the hospital in Chandalar, Bangladesh, after a doctor visited the school.

The story continues until all the information is given. The length of the story is determined by two things:

The size of the space it needs to fill in the newspaper.

The importance of the story to readers.

If the story is too long, the editors can "cut from the bottom." That means they can cut the least important information. This is the main reason the important things come first.

Appendix 5: Story Assignment Example

Assignment: Art Galleries in Shinsaibashi

Go to Shinsaibashi in Osaka. Visit 5 or 6 art galleries in that area. You can find galleries by looking around in the area. You can also get information about the location of galleries from various magazines, such as *Pia*. At each gallery, talk to the person in charge and ask about:

1. The type of art work they usually handle and the type of shows they usually stage,
2. The number of shows each year and how long each show lasts,
3. Future shows which they have planned,
4. The type of customers who visit,
5. The range of prices of the art work for sale,
6. The general condition of the art market in Osaka, etc.

Your article should introduce the galleries and give an overall perspective of art in Shinsaibashi. It should discuss future shows. Be sure to include quotes in your writing. It should also include a small map of the are and information on transportation.

Length: 300+ words
Visual elements: map, photos? (Ask the galleries if you can use or take a photo of the art.)

Appendix 6: Proofreading Checklist

Article Editing Checklist

Author(s): ______________

____

____

Contents

Okay?	Item	Checker's Name(s)
	Is the article interesting?	1 2
	Does it give important information?	1 2
	Is it organized clearly, with the most important part first?	1 2
	Are you sure that the information in it is correct?	1 2
	Is the headline appropriate?	1 2

Mechanics

Done?	Item	Checker's Name(s)	
	Spelling checked?	1	2
	Grammar checked?	1	2
	Punctuation checked?	1	2
	Organization checked?	1	2

Other

Done?	Item	Checker's Name(s)
	Are there any visuals (photographs or art)? Are they appropriate	1 2
	Do the visuals have captions?	1 2

Appendix 7: Sample Story Board and Page Planner

Story Board for Issue # ____

Page __/__

General Topic	Tentative headline	Author(s)	Length	Graphics (Size & Type)

Page Planner for Issue # ____

Page __/__

Page	Page	Page
Page	Page	Page

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Oral History: A New Look at an Old Subject

Barbara Valentine Dunkley
Nanzan Junior College

When you ask students what their favourite subjects are, history is rarely among them. They find it dry and uninteresting. This article contends that history plays a significant role in students' lives and can contribute to language learning. Through conducting interviews with participants of their own choosing, students gain insights into the life experiences of those who have lived through some of the tumultuous events of this century. Students then use the information they have gathered to create reports and speeches to be presented to the whole class. Many students have said that doing these interviews was their first opportunity to discuss issues of recent history with those who have first-hand knowledge of them. Oral history projects are an excellent way for students to learn more about the people who are important in their lives—people whose contributions to society, for one reason or another, have gone largely ignored.

Students see history as boring — just memorising names, dates and places in order to pass exams. Oral history has a very different perspective. For the purposes of this paper, oral history is defined as the recording of people's experiences of past events through story-telling. There are several distinct advantages to this approach. First of all, the participants are alive and can speak for themselves. Historians can obtain first-hand accounts of people's feelings about and attitudes towards various events and there is an opportunity to ask follow-up questions.

I tried the following project with the students I teach at various women's colleges and universities. I chose to use this project to highlight some of the unrecognised accomplishments of women in the last century. Teachers could easily adapt this project to shed light on any group whose achievements, for one reason or another, have been largely ignored by historians.

Introduction to Students

I introduce the project to my students by telling them to write on the board the name of a famous person in history, either from Japan or somewhere else in the world. Typically, the names which appear are about seventy percent male. I then tell them that thirty percent of these people are the same and that seventy percent are different. After about five minutes of introspection, someone will notice that few of the prominent historical figures mentioned are women. This demonstration clearly shows the necessity of giving more attention to the contributions of women in history. It also illustrates the fact that deciding whose contributions are important enough to be recorded is a subjective decision on the part of the historian.

Most students will be unfamiliar with the concept of oral history. A good way to demonstrate what this method of research is about is for the teacher to give an example of a story that left a strong impression which he or she heard from an older relative. A story set in the context of an historical event would be most relevant.

Organizing the Project

To get started on the project, I first instruct my students to conduct interviews individually with five women of interest to them. I tell them that two of these women must be older than fifty years old in order to gain a wider perspective on events in recently recorded history. I instruct students to get into groups and brainstorm for questions to ask their own five participants. Questions should concern general themes and should allow each participant to speak about her experiences at length. A typical questions would be, "What was the happiest and the saddest experience of your life so far?" In order not to interrupt the flow of the conversation with note-taking, I recommend that students tape record their interviews.

After they have conducted all five interviews, students meet again in their groups and relate which stories they found most compelling. Questions which come up in the group discussions are a good indication of what information may be lacking. Therefore, some students may need to visit their chosen participants again for follow-up questions. Through these discussions and the reactions they evoke from their peers, students will eventually be able to choose one woman from the five they each interviewed. This person will become the subject of the next phase of the project - the typed report and the oral presentation.

The Typed Report

I require my students to write a three-page, typed report about the subject of their most interesting interview. Most of them have never written such a long report and do not yet know how to type. They usually require some guidance about how to organise the content of their paper. The teacher may need to give instruction on how to write an outline. If it is helpful, it is a good idea for the teacher to use his or her own story about a relative to write an example outline. Students generally report that they found typing the most difficult part of the project. Yet, many say that they would not otherwise have learned how to type and that, in retrospect, it was a good experience for them.

The Oral Presentation

Next, using the outline and the typed report as a avid, students write a two to three minute speech to deliver to the class. They may need instruction in public speaking regarding posture, eye contact, use of gestures and use of index cards. I usually advise students to practice in front of a mirror and to tape record themselves to check for timing and volume.

Extension Exercise

If time permits, students might enjoy making a wall calendar based on the content of their typed reports and speeches which they can enjoy for a whole year. They already will have shortened their original reports in order to prepare for their oral presentations. They could further condense the text to fit into a five to six paragraph space with room for a photograph of their interviewee.

Typically, a wall calendar has an upper page occupied by a picture and the lower page lists the days of the month. Students could divide the upper page in half and insert two summaries of interviews with photos per month. This would allow up to twenty-four students to display their work during the course of the year. If finances are available for production, these calendars could be sold at the school festival in the autumn.

Point fo Consider

This oral history project could be adapted to highlight the achievements of many unrecognised groups such as native peoples, industrial workers, the disabled or ethnic minorities of a particular culture. The project takes a great deal of time to complete. As it takes at least one full term to complete, I would recommend that it be undertaken at the beginning of the academic year in April. If it is done in this way, there will be sufficient time for students and teachers to give feedback after the summer vacation. This would also allow for enough time to do an extension activity such as the calendar or a bound collection of the students' reports.

It is inevitable that many students will write about participants' experiences of the Second World War. This project is extremely worthwhile if it provides students with an opportunity to discuss issues which are usually not talked about openly. In fact, many students informed me that they had never had the chance to discuss the war with anyone before.

One note of caution I would raise is that many students tend to see Japan and Japanese people solely as victims in World War 11. While this is true in some respects, it is not in others. If their projects involve wartime experiences, students need to be made aware of the necessity of asking questions about the experiences of non-Japanese as well in order to gain a more complete understanding of what actually took place during the war years. While this could be an uncomfortable experience for them, in the end it will provide students with a better understanding of the complexities of present-day relations between Japan and its neighbours in the world.

Conclusion

A project of this kind requires a great deal of planning and organisation. It is important to set clear due dates as far in advance as possible. Many students will experience anxiety, as most have never undertaken such an assignment before. The opportunity to consult with fellow group members will alleviate many of their concerns. When the project is seen through to the end, I believe all will agree that it was a satisfying and worthwhile endeavour. Above all, it is hoped that students will gain new insights into how history is recorded and its relevance to their own lives.

Invent Your Own Soap Opera

Julia Dudas
Teacher Trainer

Andrew Wright
British Council

Invent Your Own Soap Opera

> 'Students have studied those exact same grammar points until they are coming out of their ears. However, while they may be coming out of their ears, they are not coming out of their mouths.' (Gilmore, 1995, pp. 38-39)

> 'One of the reasons for the lack of [the students'] interest is the fact that the characters (in the text book) are anonymous, and the relationships undefined.' (Ur, 1988, p.39)

Why Use a Soap Opera?

A continuously running, class-created community of fictional characters living in a fictional community offers a number of important benefits to the language classroom:

1) The characters, situations and community are created by the students and this gives enormous interest to many students. This applies to such an extent that students will often do extra work on their inventions and actually want to find the necessary language.
2) Things can be said about fictional characters which cannot be said about students in the class...or any real people...in case they are offended, hurt, embarrassed, etc.
3) This invented community can be a holistic experience in which all the normal needs for language are to be found, including: listening, speaking, reading and writing, in the form of: conversation, debate, story telling, writing shopping lists, letters, newspaper articles, radio and television programmes, etc.
4) What happens in the community can develop as the students' proficiency in the language develops, and, indeed, make use of the language being used in the more formal text book mode.
5) Class-created soap opera can be used occasionally or complement the course book on a regular basis, or become the main vehicle of learning. It can be used at any level, for general English or for

English for Special Purposes, for children or for adults!

What Sort of Soap opera do you Mean?

The students should choose what sort of community they would like to invent and to live with. Below are some ways that teachers and students have developed imaginary communities. Notice that there are two basic roles for the students:

Role 1: The students write and act out soap opera scripts.
Role 2: The students act spontaneously as soap characters in particular situations which are not scripted and recorded.

Mario Agnelli (Italy)

My students have invented a number of characters. They are caricatures really and the students invent the most extraordinary situations for them. I never let the class spend more than a few minutes on them but it is very useful for giving intense practice in certain grammatical points, for example, if...would clauses. They don't make plays but just act as if they were their soap characters, for example, "If I won a million pounds I would buy a helicopter and go to differenct countries and collect grasshoppers."

Klaus Lutz (Austria)

I wanted to find a way of giving variety to my teaching and increasing the chance of involving students who might not be giving their best. I was also looking for a way of getting my pupils to talk regularly. I proposed the idea of a soap opera to them; they invented the characters they wanted to use and then we agreed that we would have a lesson every three or four weeks in which every "family" prepared and presented a role play or rather a sketch.

They first of all formed groups of between three to five and formed families inventing a profile of each member. They made a poster to present their family. The class then agreed on ten situations they wanted to present during the year and these were taken by each group as it became their turn to perform. We spent one lesson a month on the soap opera. We agreed on what each episode would be and it worked out very well during the year.

Pat Glen (Britain)

Pat Glen worked with a primary school class in Britain. The idea of a soap opera grew from the need felt by both teacher and children to give a full context to their general school work. Mr Toggs, the central character, and his work as a tailor became the basis for all the children's work across the curriculum. There was no performance for others involved. The children began with a study of clothes then moved on to the idea of a tailor's shop to display the clothes. Having done that they felt the need for a shop keeper and Mr Toggs came into being. The children then wanted him to have a family and a house and later he had a birthday, and then an illness. He sold up the shop and went on a cruise. (The teacher persuaded her friends to send postcards from distant countries to the children from Mr Toggs!) Two years later the children could remember their experience of their work very clearly. It was not only a vital and enjoyable experience but a memorable one as well.

Norman Schamroth (Britain)

He described in an article how he organised a Rolling Drama in which the story was started in one school and continued in another before being passed on to another. The children were involved in creating a context, creating a story through still and moving images, using sound, silence, light and darkness and providing a focus for exploration, enquiry and reflexion. This work was with mother tongue classes.

Julia Dudas (Hungary)

I have made use of student invented communities (soap opera) with a whole range of students from young teenage students to groups of bankers learning English for special purposes. I have always used soap opera as an adjunct to my teaching based on the text book. It is wonderful to see how the students become their soap opera's characters! Sometimes I get them to write and perform episodes and at other times I just get them to behave and talk as if they were their characters.

Some classes invent communities which are rather realistic and other classes invent communities which are absolutely fantastic. It doesn't matter as long as it is interesting to them and involves a lot of real language use.

Sheila Margaret Ward (Portugal)

Recommends that students with two years of English should be able to write and perform simple plays and believes that a soap opera is a good way of putting her students in the situation where they need language.

A teacher in the German airforce

The best thing I ever learned from you was the idea of soap opera! Now it is a key part of my teaching of the pilots and navigators; they love it and invent the most outrageous tales. It is a great relief for them to live out these alternative lives!

How to start the Soap Opera

There are many ways of launching a soap opera and some of the teachers in the quotations above have indicated this variety. Here is one activity we have used with success. The text is based on an activity in our forthcoming book for Longman, which will probably be called, *Soap!*. (Dudas & Wright, 1996)

Inventing Individuals

This activity is a good way of launching a soap opera community with students at any level of proficiency. The product: a text and picture profile will be used in many of the activities of the class soap opera.

Preparation

1) An A4 sheet of white paper for each student.

Procedure

1) Classwork. Tell the students to fold the A4 paper to A5 and to draw a face onto the right hand half of the A4 paper. The face should be a characterful face with a special shape, for example, squarish, or triangular or very round and the features should be special, for example, a very big or a very little nose, big or little eyes, big or little eyebrows, etc. They should consider including: glasses, a scar, earrings, long hair, etc.
2) Classwork. Ask the students to suggest at least 5 questions they know in English to ask people about themselves. Write these on the board.
For example at a beginner level:
What's your first name?
How old are you?
How much do you weigh?
What's your hobby?
Have you got a pet?
At a higher level the students might include:
What are your main aims in life?
What are your main strengths?
What are the characteristics of a good friend, for you?
3) Individual. Tell the students to write these questions on the left hand side of the A4 paper. They should leave spaces between each question so that they can add the answers. Suggest that the students add up to 5 more questions if there is enough space on their paper.
4) Individual. Tell the students to invent answers to their questions about their character. Explain that the character they invent will take part in many stories and dramas during the next months and they should find interesting answers to the questions. Stress that they might like to make some of their answers to the answers eccentric, unusual, crazy in order to make the profile interesting and amusing, particularly emphasise the idea of unusual hobbies and habits.
The answers should be written in the space left between the questions.
5) Pairwork. The students should now stand up and walk about in order to meet other characters. The students must now behave as the characters and hold the face in front of them and towards the people they meet.
They must use the questions (on the side of paper now facing them) in order to talk to the other soap characters. They should ask for and give information to at least 3 other characters. If the students are staying with the same character for too long then you might like to ring a bell etc. in order to make them change. They should try to remember the funniest, craziest, nicest, and most horrible characters they meet.
6) Pairwork. Once the students have met two or three other people ask them to point to the other people they have met and to tell their new partner who the people are and what interesting information they can remember about them.
7) Individual. The students must now do a final draft of their picture and a final draft of the information about their character. These final picture text profiles should be mounted on card and kept in clear plastic envelopes or covered with clear, self- adhesive plastic. They will be used many times in future activities. If you intend covering them with self- adhesive plastic then wait until the families have been established so that the family name can be added. We suggest that you keep them in a class soap journal folder.

What Other Activities Might There be?

- The community can suffer a disaster: characters describe where they were and what they were doing at the time of the disaster and then what happened to them.
- Characters can plan and go on holiday and write postcards to other characters.
- Characters can look for jobs, apply for them and have interviews.
- The community can have a party: plan the party, send out invitations, design posters, have the party with real drinks and snacks, have the games and have incidents which must be sorted out, etc.

Do the Activities Have to be Long?

Whatever length the activities are they must offer you and the students as much useful, meaningful and memorable language practice as any other form of work in the classroom.

The activities above take at least one lesson. But it is important to appreciate that, having invented your community it can be turned to at any moment without preparation and without taking very much time. Here are some examples of how grammar can be practised:

Present simple and present continuous

Each student chooses a picture/text profile of a soap character, studies it and tries to become that character.

Each student then decides what his or her character is doing at that moment. Ask the class: What does Charlie Carrot do most days? (The students try to remember the sort of things that Charlie does and call them out. Charlie confirms or not) What is he doing at this moment, do you think? (The students try to guess. Charlie confirms or rejects and finally reveals if necessary).

Past tenses

Each student chooses a picture/text profile of a soap character, studies it and tries to become that character. Have a display of a wide variety of pictures on a table (magazine pictures and picture postcards of people, places, sports, news etc.). Tell the students to: take a picture and talk to the class about what it reminds you (as your soap character) of, either good or bad feelings. Billy Brickhead (with a picture of a parrot)

> I used to have a parrot like this one, called Polly. She was very intelligent, she could speak a few English words and sing my favourite song. We were good friends. One day she disappeared. I was very depressed, I cried all day thinking that perhaps she was dead. However, 4 months later Polly, my lovely parrot came back to me. I was very happy. But to my greatest shock Polly could no longer speak or sing, she could only bark very loudly. And it is still a mystery what happened to her during those 4 months!

Past tense forms for describing the previous weekend

"I can never get my students to talk about their last weekend but they will talk about their soap opera characters' last weekends for hours!" (One teacher told us!) What did Sally Spooky do last weekend?

> On Saturday she got up at 4 a.m. and went to the local field to fly her two kites for 4 hours. Then she went to the Local Archives to continue her intensive research on ghosts and phantoms of the community from 1666 up to our present time for her forthcoming book. She spent the whole weekend in the Archives.

Style and Register

The students working in pairs write at least three variations of dialogue reflecting what three different pairs of soap characters might say in a similar situation. They must act out the three dialogues for the class/another group afterwards.

Examples of situations might be:

- eating in a restaurant and then being unable to pay
- in a car which has broken down in the country near a cemetary at midnight
- one of you is accused by a train ticket collector of deliberately not buying a ticket
- you both find a large sum of money in your cellar

Conclusion

Invent a soap opera community with your students and choose situations which will help them to practice the language they have been learning in the text book in new ways...so that it comes out of their mouths and not just their ears!

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Metric Conversion: Acquiring English Rhythm

Margaret Sharkey & Eiko Ushida
Kansai Gaidai

Introduction

The rhythmic structure of English varies greatly from that of Japanese, making it difficult for our students to both understand and be understood. It is essential, therefore, that rhythm activities be brought into the classroom in order to improve their perception and intelligibility.

English Rhythm

Metrical stress theory [MST], first developed by Liberman (1975) and Prince (Liberman and Prince, 1977), is the branch of generative phonology which focuses on stress patterns and the rhythm they create in different languages. It provides a clear picture of rhythmic structure in English and an understanding of the significant role rhythm plays in the speech stream. To illustrate rhythmic structure, MST uses metrical grids composed of two axes. The vertical axis indicates different levels of stress. The horizontal axis corresponds to the number of syllables (and silent pauses) in the utterance. The rhythmic pattern appears as the syllables alternate between stronger and weaker levels of stress. Figure 1 (all figures are at the end of this article), for example, shows how the rhythm of a nursery rhyme is created as syllables with similar degrees of stress (or number of Xs) are recited at relatively equal intervals. This rhythm, which appears at different levels, can be easily recognized by tapping while reciting. First, do so only where there are four Xs. Then tap where there are either three or four Xs. (As lower and lower levels of stress are included, the tempo may slow down.)

Rhythm is also present, though to a lesser degree, in prose and conversation. Figure 2 contains a transcript based on a conversation from a radio talk show. This conversation is also rhythmic, the difference being that, unlike the nursery rhyme, it does not maintain the same rhythm across the entire text. Instead, portions of the conversation, including turn-taking between the two speakers, follow rhythmic patterns.

In addition to giving us a clear picture of rhythmic structure, MST also shows us the importance of rhythm in the speech stream. In English, rhythm affects many features including phoneme choice, morphology, the alignment of intonation tunes and the placement of stress (Figure 3). Hayes (1995) summarizes, "In stress languages, every utterance has a rhythmic structure which serves as an organizing framework for that utterance's phonological and phonetic representation" (p. 8).

Because it is stress which creates rhythmic structure in English, it is important that we understand how this stress operates. Because English is a stress-timed language, the time interval between stressed syllables is considered by NSs to be relatively similar. Because English stress is contrastive in nature, these strongly stressed syllables, which maintain the rhythm, tend to be followed by weakly stressed syllables, creating a pattern of alternation. Stress in English can be recognized by a combination of features, namely, variations in frequency, duration and amplitude.

Japanese Rhythm

Several researchers have tried to describe Japanese in terms of MST, focusing on tone placement (Abe 1981; Bennett 1981; Halle 1982; Zubizarreta 1982). They have met, however, with limited success. Poser (1984) critiques these attempts and states that what distinguishes Japanese from English is its inability to fit neatly into a metrical stress system. (Poser (1990) later makes a case for the existence of foot structure in Japanese, independent of the tonal system, a question which is beyond the scope of this paper.)

Instead, Japanese rhythm is most typically explained in terms of mora-timing. The nature of mora-timing makes Japanese rhythm significantly different from English rhythm. The mora, the basic rhythm unit in Japanese, has a relatively fixed length (unlike the English syllable), varying slightly within words so those containing the same number of mora have similar duration (Han, 1994; Tsukuma, 1985). Variation in the Japanese speech stream comes from significant changes in pitch. The same pitch level can be maintained over two or more mora. (In contrast, English frequency levels tend to alternate.)

Figure 4 shows how these differences affect a Japanese speaker's attempt to recite a phrase in English. Even after practice, the Japanese speaker produces a sentence in which the duration and frequency of each syllable does not vary nearly as much as that of the NS's utterance of the same sentence. This accounts for the NSs' impression that the English of many Japanese speakers is choppy and monotonous.

Rhythm's Building Blocks: Syllables and Mora

The perceptual building block of English rhythm is the syllable, of Japanese rhythm is the mora. The syllable is composed of a nucleus to which optional surroundings (the margin and rhyme) can be added. The nucleus consists of either a vowel or syllabic consonant. The surroundings are arranged according to a complex system of phonotactic rules which allow for great variety and complexity (eg., consonant clusters and closed syllables). The mora, in contrast, can be smaller than a syllable, yet is usually larger than a phoneme. (For example, "Nippon" is normally considered to contain two syllables, four mora and five phonemes.) The mora is composed of a vowel or consonant plus vowel. There are two exceptions: nasal 'n' and moraic obstruent 'ttsu'. Unlike the syllable, the possible combination of phonemes in the mora is quite simple. The differences between the syllable and the mora further impede our students' attempts to acquire English rhythm.

Perception

While easily perceived by native speakers, these units of rhythm often confound speakers of other languages. The extent to which our linguistic experience affects our perception was shown by Cutler and Otake (1994). They asked NSs of Japanese and English to detect specific sounds in both languages. The subjects' response time and accuracy were measured. The Japanese subjects responded more quickly and accurately to moraic targets than non-moraic ones in both languages. Cutler and Otake concluded, "Some processing operations which listeners apply to speech input are language-specific; these language-specific procedures, appropriate to listening to input in the native language, may be applied to foreign language input irrespective of whether they remain appropriate" (p. 824).

Intelligibility

When evaluating intelligibility, suprasegmental features, of which rhythm is a major component, are generally considered more important than segmental features (Brown, 1992). A study to test this was designed by Garzola and Graham (1995). They asked both NSs and NNSs to record the same passage, and then used a sound editing program to modify these recordings. Phonemes from the passages the NNSs had produced were spliced into the NSs' passages, and vice-versa. These modified passages were rated by a separate group of NSs in terms of intelligibility. The passages which maintained the NSs' rhythm and intonation patterns (yet included incorrect phonemes) were much easier to understand than those that contained the NSs' phonemes connected by the NNSs' suprasegmental features.

Classroom Application

Current teaching materials do a good job of presenting the basic skills which maintain rhythm both within syllables (eg., the ability to pronounce consonant clusters and closed syllables) and across syllables (eg., the ability to place stress and make the appropriate reductions between stressed syllables). Many of these materials do not, however, place enough emphasis on the overall role of rhythm in the speech stream. For this reason, the teaching methods and materials which follow focus on a top-down approach to improving our student's perception and intelligibility.

Teaching Activities—Perception and Awareness

It is essential to begin by introducing the concept of perception. Perhaps it is easier to do this by focusing on visual perception first. For example, students can look at pictures which create optical illusions, such as M.C. Escher's work or the 3D pictures found in some pop art. It is also useful to discuss readings about perception. To start narrowing the discussion to auditory perception, it is interesting to ask the philosophical question: "If a tree falls in a forest and nobody is there to hear it, does it make a sound?" Finally, listening to recordings of foreign speech streams with which the students are unfamiliar enables them to focus objectively on the salient rhythmic features present in languages.

After discussing the concept of perception, the specific differences that exist between English and Japanese rhythm can be introduced. A guessing game (Figure 5) focusing on these differences can be played . To set up this game, the teacher chooses words from both languages which vary according to number of syllables or mora, and stress or pitch placement. The teacher then hums the target word and the students guess which word has been chosen.

Another effective technique is to use the body as a rhythm instrument. Fraisse (1992) suggests that perception is improved when kinetic movement is linked to rhythmic structure. Have the students snap, tap or clap on the stressed syllables that maintain the rhythm in an utterance, or have them use their arms, taking advantage of the verbo-tonal method (Shimosaki, Kyo and Roberge 1985), in which students are taught to keep the rhythm by swinging their arms from the elbow, creating circles. The stressed syllable should fall each time the arm passes the same position (the 12 o'clock position, for example).

Teaching Activities—Intelligibility

When working on intelligibility, metrical grids can be used to illustrate the rhythmic structure being presented. Start with exercises that help students maintain rhythm within phrases. Figure 6 targets unstressed vowels the contrast between "can" and "can't." Figure 7 targets sequences of weakly stressed syllables. The teacher points out the target pattern in the metrical grid and hums it while using kinetic movement to mark the stressed syllables. The students repeat. Then the teacher builds up the target sentences by reciting key sounds, again having the students repeat. Finally, sentences which demonstrate the target rhythm are introduced. (The pattern in Figure 7 can be introduced by playing the beginning of Beethoven's Fifth Symphony.) See Tibitts (1967) for examples of other rhythmic patterns.

The next step is helping students maintain rhythm across phrasal boundaries. They must learn how to divide the speech stream into phrases, inserting the proper silent pauses, a skill which is essential in maintaining the rhythm. They must also learn how to insert pauses that are articulated. By doing such activities as playing "password" and telling stories (Figure 8) the students can learn how to use these verbal pauses. In "password," the students contrast the use of "and" both as a pause marker and linking word. In the story-telling activity, the students tell a chain story, beginning and ending each turn with "and," "but" or "because." Other stress patterns, for example, compound stress, can also be practiced by having the students include the target words or phrases as they continue the story.

A final step involves encouraging the students to distinguish their English voice from their Japanese voice. Starting with familiar phrases and loan words, have the students recite in English and Japanese. For example, in comparing alphabets and counting systems, the students should be able to feel the difference in rhythm. Students should also learn how to switch back and forth between English and Japanese versions of loan words like "strike" and "express." For a real challenge, have the students work on differentiating between English lyrics and their karaoke version, now being published with popular music.

Verse offers interesting and effective practice. Vaughan-Rees (1992) explains "Poetry, after all, is an enhanced form of regular spoken language. And if learners of English begin to read poems with something approaching the realities of speech, then, in my opinion, their actual spoken pronunciation can only benefit" (p. 55). Our students' appreciation of the difference between English and Japanese rhythm can be increased by contrasting verse in each language. Take children's rhymes, for example. Figure 9 (p. 15) illustrates the difference between the rhymes used to make choices in both languages. Note that, in Japanese, the items are counted by mora, whereas, in English, they are counted by stress. Another interesting contrast can be seen when comparing haiku written in Japanese and English (Figure 10). Although the English version of this art form may contain the typical 5-7-5 pattern, the rhythm will vary greatly from one poem to the next.

One means of exploiting verse which the students enjoy involves combining choral reading and reader's theater techniques. Choral reading, itself, is a powerful technique. "If a group of English speakers is asked to read a passage together, they will tend to exaggerate the natural rhythmic tendencies of the language to make unison pronunciation possible...The rhythm becomes self-reinforcing." (Attridge, 1982, p. 74). Reader's theater adds the advantage of being able to turn the use of this technique into a performance. Take a story told in verse, for example, Dr. Seuss' How the Grinch Stole Christmas (Geisel, 1957). Divide the story into alternating parts, perhaps five (Figure 11). Then divide the class into five groups, each group responsible for one of these parts. In order to be able to recite its part in rhythmic fashion, each group must agree on where the stresses fall.

Recommended Materials

We recommend two textbooks which focus on the role of rhythm in the speech stream. Michael Vaughan-Rees' Rhymes and Rhythm (1994) contains many useful and enjoyable activities. Wayne Dickerson's Stress in the Speech Stream (1989) is thorough and informative.

Conclusion

Take a look at the following excerpt and try to make out the story it tells:

> Wants pawn term, dare worsted ladle gull how lift wetter murder inner ladle cordage honor itch offer lodge dock florist. Disc ladle gull orphan worry ladle rat cluck wetter putty ladle rat hut, end fur disc raisin pimple cauldron ladle rat rotten hut. Wan moaning rat rotten hut's murder colder inset: Ladle rat rotten hut, heresy ladle basking winsome burden barter end shirker cockles. Tick disc ladle basking Tudor cordage off-year groin murder hoe lifts honor udder site other florist. Shaker lake, dun stopper laundry wrote, end yonder no sorghum stenches dun stopper torque wet strainers (unknown source).

Lacking vocabulary and syntax, its meaning can only be deciphered to the degree you are able to impose the correct rhythmic structure.

> The point to be emphasized...is that we will sense these relationships among syllables even when they are not fully manifested in the speech signal itself, because knowing the language means having established intimate connections between certain features of an abstract system and certain kinds of muscular behavior...In listening to our own language, we can dispense with many of the signals and still grasp the meaning and the rhythmic structure which makes that meaning communicable (Attridge, 1982, p. 70).

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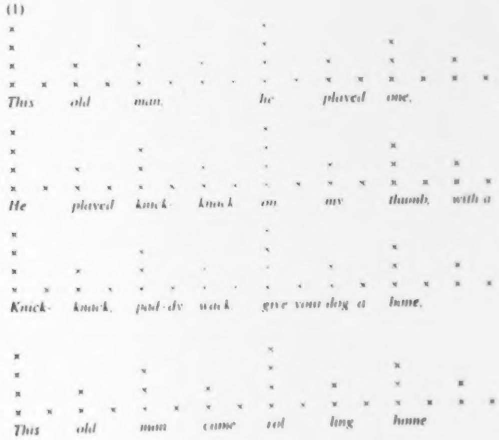

(1)
This old man, he played one,
He played knick- knack on my thumb, with a
Knick- knack, pad-dy wack, give your dog a bone,
This old man came rol ling home

Fig. 1: Sample Metrical Grid Demonstrating the Rhythm of a Rhyme
Source: Hayes (1995, pp. 26-27)

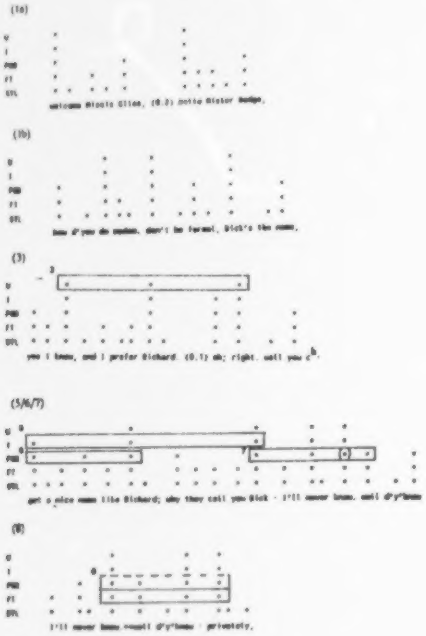


Fig. 2: Sample Metrical Grid Demonstrating the Rhythm of a Conversation
Source: Couper-Kuhlen (1993, pp. 91-93)

1. Phonemes
    - A Rhythm affects vowel quality (Examples are from author's dialect.)

Never Stressed: [ə, ɨ, ɚ]

Variable: [ɨ]
[ḷ] (pedal [pʰeḍḷ] vs. apple [ǽpḷ])
[i, ow] / ___ #, / ___ V, and in prefixes
(comprehend = [kʰàmprihɛ́nd, kʰàmprəhɛ́nd])
[ɪ] / ___ ŋ
[yu] ~ [yə] (occupy = [ákyupʰày], [ákyəpʰày])

Always Stressed: [ey, ɛ, æ, a, ɔ, ʌ, ʊ, u], and [i, ow, ɪ] when not in the contexts of (b)

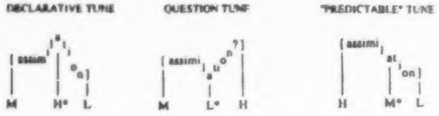
- B Rhythm affects consonant formation.

Flapping: *data* vs. *attain*
T-Insertion: *Mensa* vs. *menace*
L-Devoicing: *Iceland* vs. *Icelandic*
Medial Aspiration: *account* vs. *chicken*

2. Lexicon and Grammar
Rhythm marks content and function words: *the article 'a'* vs. *a bag*

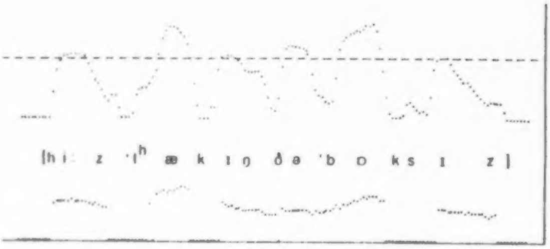
3. Morphology
Rhythm affects word formation: *bound* becomes *unboundedness.*

4. Intonation
    - A Rhythm marks the intonational phrase: each has only one primary stress.
    - B Rhythm aligns intonational tunes.

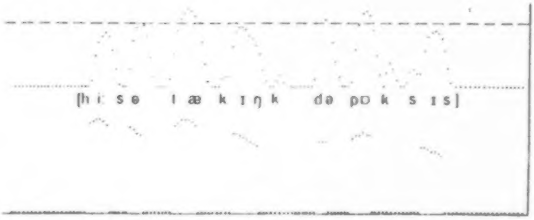


5. Stress
    - A Rhythm causes stress to be shifted leftward when a stronger stress follows: *thirteen* vs. *thirteen men.*
    - B Rhythm prohibits this from happening when the leftmost syllable is completely unstressed: *Patrice French*

Fig. 3: Some of Rhythm's Effects on the Speech Stream
Source: Hayes (1995, pp. 10-15)



He's tacking the boxes (male American speaker)



He's tacking the boxes (female Japanese speaker)

Fig. 4: Illustration of the Differences between English and Japanese Rhythm
Source: Molholt (1992, pp. 149-150)

Using rhythmic cues to identify words

English Words	Japanese Words
prefer	ame
kitten	ame
elephant	sakura
banana	kokoro
Japanese	inochi
California	tomodachi
dictionary	kicchin
incredible	mizuumi
communication	onaidoshi
unnecessarily	kariforunia

Note: Bold text represents syllables with primary stress or mora with high pitch.

Fig. 5: Guessing Game:
Distinguishing English Word Patterns
from Japanese Word Patterns

Part A. Practicing unstressed vowels

metrical grid	X X	X	X	X X X
humming	hm,	hm,	hm,	hm…
kinetic movement	(here)			(here)
build-up	i i i i i i i dididididididid did it,did it,did it			
examples	When did it come? What did it cost? Where did it stop?			
build-up	u u u u u u duzu,duzu,duzu does a,does a,does a			
examples	John does a lot. Sue does a few. Mark does a task.			

Part B. Differentiating between "can" and "can't"

metrical grid	X X	X	X X X	X	X X X	X X
humming	hm,	hm,	hm…	hm,	hm…,	hm
kinetic movement	(here)		(here)		(here)	(here)
build-up	cn,cn, cn,cn, cn			can,can,can,can,can		
examples	She can teach He can tell They can talk			She can't teach He can't tell They can't talk		

Fig. 6: Sound-Play:
Maintaining Rhythm within Phrases

Practicing a series of weakly stressed syllables

metrical grid	X X	X	X	X	X X X
humming		hm,	hm	hm,	hm
kinetic movement	(here)				(here)
examples	walking in the woods	quiet as a mouse			frankfurters and beans
	singing in the rain	bigger than a barn			hamburgers and fries
	talking in the dark	slower than a mule			strawberry surprise
add these examples to above	Marilyn Monroe's			Marilyn Monroe likes	

Fig. 7: Beethoven's Fifth:
Maintaining Rhythm within Phrases

Playing password

metrical grid	X X X	X X	X X	X	X X X
function	_____ and verbal pause		______'n'______ verbal link		
clues/responses	black and		black and white		
	high and		high and low		
	love and		love and hate		
	thick and		thick and thin		
	boys and		boys and girls		

Telling stories

A. Jack was walking down the street when (Include vocabulary here.) (End with *because, and, or but,* lengthening stressed vowel to show pause.)

B. (Repeat *because, and, or but* and continue the story.)

metrical grid	X X X	X X
examples	notebook	
	toothbrush	
	backpack	
	beer can	
	wristwatch	

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Fig. 8: Verbal Pauses:
Maintaining Rhythm across Phrases

Making a choice using a stress-timed rhyme

						X	
X		X		X		X	
X	X	X	X	X	X	X	(X)
Eeny,		meeny,		miny,		mo	(pause)
Catch a		tiger		by its		toe	(pause)
If he		hollers,		let him		go	(pause)
Eeny,		meeny,		miny,		mo	(pause)

Making a choice using a mora-timed rhyme

X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		
do	re	mi	shi	yo	u	ka	na		
ka	mi	sa	ma	no	i	u	to	o	ri ..

Fig. 9: Children's Rhymes:
Comparing English and Japanese Rhythm

Reciting Haiku

X										
X	X			X						
X	X			X						
X	X	(X)	(X)	X	X	X				
Sunset				carrying						
				X			X			
		X		X			X	X		
		X		X		X	X	X		
	X	X	X	X	(X)	X	X	X	(X)	(X)
	a	red	balloon,			he	looks	back...		
						X				
			X			X				
			X	X		X				
		X	X	X	X	X				
		a	child	leaves	the	zoo				

(W. F. O'Rourke, 1964)

			X			
	X		X			
	X		X			
X	X	X	X	X	(X)	(X)
A	bitter		morning			
X		X			X	
X	X	X			X	
X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sparrows		sitting		together		
				X		
	X			X		
X	X	X		X		
X	X	X	X	X		j
Without		any		necks		

(J. W. Hackett, 1964)

Fig. 10: Haiku in English:
Comparing English and Japanese Rhythm
Source: Henderson (1971, pp. 30-31)

1,2	*How the Grinch Stole Christmas* by Dr. Seuss
3	Every Who down in Whoville liked Xmas a lot
4	But the Grinch, who lived just north of Whoville,
1,2,3,4	DID NOT!!!
3	The Grinch *hated* Xmas! The whole Xmas season!
4	Now, please don't ask why. No one quite knows the reason
2	It *could* be his head wasn't screwed on just right.
1	It *could* be, perhaps, that his shoes were too tight.
3	But I think that the most likely reason of all
4	May have been that his heart was 2 sizes too small.
3	But, whatever the reason, his heart or his shoes,
4	He stood there on Xmas Eve, hating the Whos,
3	Staring down from his cave with a sour, Grinchy frown
4	At the warm lighted windows below in their town.
3	For he knew every Who down in Whoville beneath
4	Was busy now, hanging a mistletoe wreath.
5	"And they're hanging their stockings!"
1	He snarled with a sneer.
5	"Tomorrow is Xmas! It's practically here!"
2	Then he growled, with his Grinch fingers nervously drumming,
5	"I MUST find some way to stop Xmas from coming!"
1	For, tomorrow, he knew, all the Who girls and boys
1	Would wake bright and early.
2	They'd rush for their toys! And *then!*
2/3/4	Oh, the noise! Oh, the Noise! Noise! Noise! Noise!
2	That's *one* thing he hated!
2/3/4	The NOISE! NOISE! NOISE! NOISE!
1	Then the Whos, young and old, would sit down to a feast.
2	And they'd feast
2/3/4	*And they'd feast!* And they'd FEAST! FEAST! FEAST! FEAST!

Symbols: The numbers represent each group. Commas mean the groups indicated speak together. Slashes mean the groups indicated join in, one phrase after the other, thus building a crescendo effect.

Fig. 11: *How the Grinch Stole Christmas*
Source: Geisel (1957)

Allein gegen alle Deutschunterricht in der Großklasse

Alfred Gehrmann
Kanazawa Technical College

Wie der Sprachunterricht im allgemeinen, so findet der Deutschunterricht in Japan in der Regel in der Großklasse statt - unter Bedingungen also, die eine für den Lernprozeß relevante Kommunikation der SchülerInnnen untereinander unmöglich erscheinen lassen. Stellvertretend für die in vielen anderen Institutionen vergleichbare Situation werden im folgenden Erfahrungen aus einer Technischen Fachoberschule (kougyoukoutousenmongakkou) ausgewertet. In einem Wahlpflichtkurs für SchülerInnen im 4.Jahr (das entspricht dem 1. Jahr Universität) sitzen 100 Minuten pro Woche nominal 55 TeilnehmerInnen, die reale Anwesenheit liegt bei 45.

Glöckel (1992, S. 58) beschreibt die Großklasse als Ansammlung so vieler Schüler, daß diese nicht mehr wechselseitig in Kontakt treten können (und die deswegen nicht Großgruppe genannt werden sollte). [...] Zusammenwirken ist [...] kaum mehr möglich. Aufgebend kann [der Lehrer] praktisch nur den Einzelnen und die Gruppe beschäftigen. Es liegt nahe, vor diesem Hintergrund Glöckels Empfehlung zu folgen und den Unterricht in der Form des Darbietens und Aufnehmens zu organisieren. Das Darbieten ist im Grunde eine natürliche und naheliegende Form der Belehrung: Wer etwas kann oder weiß, zeigt oder sagt es demjenigen, der erst hören und schauen muß, bevor er mitreden oder selbst richtig nachmachen kann.(Glöckel, S. 66) Schon ohne ein Sonderproblem, wie es die Großklasse darstellt, sind die Forderungen nach Abbau des Frontalunterrichts [...] deshalb im Fremdsprachenunterricht so schwer zu realisieren, weil dort der Lehrer nicht nur hinsichtlich des Fachwissens einen Vorsprung hat, sondern auch hinsichtlich des Lehrmediums, der Sprache. (Schiffler, 1989, S. 415) Die Sozialform der Großklasse schließt also für den Fremdsprachenunterricht unabdingbare Formen aktiver Teilnahme anscheinend aus.

Wer dennoch dem Zwang dieser Gegebenheiten nicht nachgeben will, muß die didaktische Kompetenz der LernerInnen nutzbar machen. Schiffler (1989, S. 416) nennt diese Kompetenz als eine von mehreren Voraussetzungen für erfolgreiche Gruppenarbeit, bringt sie aber nicht in Verbindung mit anderen Sozialformen wie z. B. der Großklasse. Die Nutzung dieser Kompetenz macht es möglich, auf die Forderungen nach aktiver Teilnahme am Lernprozeß einzugehen. Um diese Kompetenz zum Tragen kommen zu lassen, müssen jedoch entsprechende Voraussetzungen geschaffen werden.

Daß unterschiedliche Lerninhalte angemessene und voneinander verschiedene technische Voraussetzungen brauchen, ist grundsätzlich unbestritten. Chemie- oder Sportunterricht finden in entsprechenden Räumen und in angemessener Kleidung statt, da sie im normalen Klassenraum nicht adäquat durchgeführt werden können. Werden für den Sprachunterricht Forderungen nach kleineren Lerngruppen aus den verschiedensten Gründen nicht erfüllt, so läßt sich jedoch in den meisten Fällen ein Klassenraum organisieren, in dem die Tische zu Vierergruppen zusammengeschoben werden können, und zwar nicht nur für einzelne Übungen, sondern für die gesamte Unterrichtsdauer. Wer einen solchen Unterrichtsraum schafft, realisiert die erste Regel: nicht Kommunikation mit dem Lehrer steht im Vordergrund, sondern Kommunikation der LernerInnen untereinander. Die Anlage des Unterrichts folgt nicht dem Prinzip frontal erklären - in der Gruppe üben.

Vielmehr entwickeln paralell arbeitende Gruppen von je vier LernerInnen gemeinsam

a) Verständnis für die Fremdsprache und
b) die Fähigkeit, diese Fremdsprache anzuwenden.

Ein solcher Unterrichtsansatz ist sicherlich leichter zu realisieren, wo in Universitäten Paralellkurse für die selbe Lernergruppe von japanischen KollegInnen unterrichtet werden. Dadurch erübrigt sich ein beträchtlicher Teil des theoretischen Unterrichts, des Erklärens also. Erfahrungsgemäß ist kommunikativer Unterricht in der Großklasse aber auch ohne eine solche Paralellveranstaltung möglich.

Wer davon überzeugt ist, daß ein erfolgreicher Fremdsprachenunterricht nur im Zusammenspiel einer beschränkten Anzahl von PartnerInnen möglich ist, wer dementsprechend eine Vorliebe für Unterrichtsmaterialien hat, die für regelmäßige Teamarbeit, Partnerkontrolle usw. konzipiert sind, sollte sich nicht durch die äußeren Bedingungen nicht davon abhalten lassen, den Aufbau des Unterrichts auf diese Materialien abzustimmen. Als Beispiel sei hier Sprachkurs Deutsch 1, Neufassung (Häussermann, 1991) angeführt. Dieses Buch ist mit seinen Dialogübungen, Bildtexten und Satzschalttafeln für den Frontalunterricht gänzlich ungeeignet, gibt der gelegentlich vom Lehrer unterstützten Vierergruppe innerhalb der Großklasse jedoch reichlich Gelegenheit, beim Üben des bereits Gelernten neue Strukturen und Bedeutungen kennenzulernen. Grundsätzlich sollte sich der Lehrer für ein Buch entscheiden, in dem die Progression in der Regel in die Übungen eingebettet ist, im Gegensatz zu Lehrwerken, die Erklären und Üben voneinander trennen. Die Auswahl des Lehrbuchs sollte von der Überlegung getragen sein, welchem Material der Lehrer seine Lernergruppen anvertrauen will.

Als weiteres zum eigenständigen Entwickeln in der Vierergruppe hilfreiches Arbeitsmittel empfiehlt sich ein kleines einsprachiges Wörterbuch wie z. B. kleines Lexikon der (Alltags-)Welt (Marui, 1990). Der nach Wortfeldern gegliederte Aufbau ermöglicht der Vierergruppe einen Arbeitsstil, der das ineffiziente und nicht kommunikative Nachschlagen - Notieren - Vergessen ersetzt. Auch hier geht es darum, den Lerngruppen ein Werkzeug in die Hand zu geben, daß sie möglichst bald selbstständig benutzen können.

Es ist nun ohne weiteres möglich, die Arbeit der Vierergruppen durch Tafelanschrieb zentral zu leiten und zu variieren - welche Übung wird gemacht, wird sie als Tempoübung gemacht, laut, leise oder geflüstert, im Stehen oder im Sitzen, mit vier Büchern offen, wird nur ein Buch herumgereicht, oder werden die Bücher ganz geschlossen? Im letzteren Fall können Impulse - Stichwörter etwa, oder Illustrationen aus dem Lehrbuch - mit dem Tageslichtprojektor oder an der Tafel präsentiert werden. Eine andere Variante ist es, das einzige offene Buch einer LehrerIn innerhalb der Gruppe zu geben, die die Übung anleitet und gegebenenfalls korrigiert. Diese Methode bewährt sich vor allem bei Aufgaben, die wiederholt werden oder als Hausarbeit gestellt werden.

Schriftlich aufgegebene Hausaufgaben brauchen nicht mühselig vom Lehrer einzeln korrigiert zu werden. Vielmehr wird die Gruppe zu Beginn der Stunde aufgefordert, die einzelnen Ergebnisse zu einer gemeinsamen Lösung zusammenzufassen und auf nur einem Blatt abzugeben. Auch Klassenaufgaben können aus dem Buch heraus großfotokopiert werden (das erleichtert die Teamarbeit); Lösungen werden wiederum gemeinsam besprochen und abgestimmt. Der Lehrer sammelt dann nur die Gruppenlösung zur Korrektur und Benotung ein. Eine andere Möglichkeit ist es, die Gruppenergebnisse von je einer VertreterIn an die Tafel anschreiben zu lassen. Für Schnelligkeit lassen sich hier ebenso wie für Korrektheit Punkte an die Gruppe vergeben. Jede Form von Wettbewerb unter den Gruppen macht solche Aktivitäten ohne größere Umstände sehr lebendig.

Das Prinzip, eine GruppenvertreterIn mit einer Aufgabe von der Gruppe wegzuschicken, läßt sich auch anwenden, um Informationen einzuholen. Ein Beispiel dafür ist das Außendiktat, bei dem ein außerhalb des Klassenraumes aufgehängter Text der im Klassenraum zurückbleibenden Gruppe diktiert werden muß. Auch hier können wieder Punkte für Präzision und Schnelligkeit vergeben werden. Umgekehrt kann auch an drei Gruppenmitglieder die Aufgabe gestellt werden, für das zurückbleibende Mitglied Informationen zu sammeln, die an den Tischen der anderen Gruppen eingeholt werden müssen. Das bietet sich etwa bei Wortschatzübungen an: Einzelne Tische sind zuständig z. B. für Obst, Gemüse, Getränke, Schreibwaren, Kleidung, Möbel etc.

Kann eine Gruppe ein Problem nicht selbstständig lösen, wird der Lehrer zu Hilfe gerufen. Der kommt aber nur, wenn alle Gruppenmitglieder die Hände heben. Das verhindert in der Regel die Inanspruchnahme des Lehrers für Probleme, die eigentlich durch gemeinsames Nachdenken in der Gruppe lösbar sind.

Um den individuellen Lernfortschritt der StudentInnen in Zensuren festzulegen, lassen sich drei Faktoren heranziehen. Ein das Semester abschließender Test, der Hefter mit allen im Laufe des Semesters angefertigten Hausaufgaben, sowie eine Auswertung der Punkte, die vom Lehrer an die Gruppen vergeben wurden. Schließt eine Gruppe eine vom Lehrer aufgegebene Aktivität besonders schnell oder gründlich ab, bekommt sie eine Punktekarte. Am Ende des Unterrichts bekommen die einzelnen Gruppenmitglieder für jede Karte einen Punkt. Die mündliche Note, die zu Beginn des Semesters für alle bei 50% liegt, verändert sich entsprechend nach oben. Unentschuldigtes Fehlen oder Stören des Unterrichts führen zu Abzügen. Da die Gruppen im Unterricht für die Hausaufgaben Musterlösungen erstellen, genügt es, die Hausaufgabenmappe lediglich einmal zum Ende des Semesters einzusehen, um sich ein Bild über das individuelle Engagement zu machen.

Wird das Thema Beurteilung hier schon angesprochen, sollte auch die Bewertung des Unterrichts durch die LernerInnen einbezogen werden. Die läßt sich sehr einfach , z. B. nach dem Abschlußtest durchführen, wenn die SchülerInnen aufgefordert werden, ohne Namensnennung und in der Ausgangssprache ihre Meinung zum Unterricht aufzuschreiben. Gerade diese Umfragen haben den Autor dazu ermutigt, den Deutschunterricht in der Großklasse vollständig den Vierergruppen anzuvertrauen. Darüberhinaus lassen sich Erfahrungen, Informationen, Ideen und Literatur zum Thema kooperatives Lernen in verschiedenen Internet-Foren finden, über die der Autor bei Bedarf gern Auskunft gibt.

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Constructive Methods of Dealing with Large Classes

Thomas L. Simmons

Dawn Yonally

Edward Haig

Large Class Research: An International Perspective

Studies in class size date from at least as early as 1902 (Rice, 1902). Between 1902 and 1975 there were at least 76 studies conducted (Cooper, 1989). Interest has been intermittent. In the U. S. there was very little work in this area until some extraordinary budgeting allocations in the United States. In 1965, Title 1[1] funds provided to educate low-achieving children and the modifications made in 1981, Chapter 1[2] funds gave a massive impetus in funding requests and thus the research needed to justify the grants. While the research in the United States is certainly not the only work being done, it is important to note that more than 45 billion was expended by 1989 (Slavin, 1989) and as such the desire to wrest a fair portion from the federal coffers has provided intense competition and the research papers in class size influence have proliferated.

The European studies have come largely from the Lancaster-Leeds Language Learning in Large Classes Research Project based at the universities of Leeds and Lancaster for which

Hywel Coleman has compiled numerous studies from Asia and Europe. Their first project report (Coleman, 1989) is an extensive bibliography that serves as a reference for the classroom teachers perspective.

In Japan, the primary source of reported work has been published in the JALT publication *The Language Teacher* (Christensen,1988; Helgesen, 1986). The largest portion of the work reported in English is focused on the classroom environment rather than systemic studies which would include such things as curriculum, evaluation, finance and administration. The work is almost wholly qualitative reports and reflects the teachers concerns for management, method and student-teacher interaction.

Whereas the studies for Europe and Asia number in the hundreds, studies for North America (predominantly the USA) number in the thousands. The doctoral dissertations on large classes research alone registered with Pro-Quest Dissertation Abstracts exceeded 600 by June 1995.

The focal work in the North American literature to date are the series of studies by Glass et al. and Educational Research Service. (Glass et al. , 1978, 1982) conducted an extensive research of the previous studies and concentrated on research class size and achievement. Using a quantitative perspective, they found 109 small-large class comparisons that employed randomisation. Of these 109, 81% of the comparisons favoured the smaller classes. They interpreted the data to mean that a reduction in class size would produce significant improvement in student achievement.

ERS (1978) conducted a less restricted review and analysis of the data and reached very different conclusions from the 1978 Glass and Smith study. ERS asserted that there was little if any support to show that smaller classes benefited students achievement levels.

In answer, Glass et al. were unstinting in their criticism of the ERS methodology which lumped many categories together and did not account for non-randomisation. In addition, Glass et al. delineated the political nature of the ERS and their clients as evidence of political rather than educational priorities (Glass et al., 1982, p. 84). As a result, ever since the 70s the primary debate in class size in the USA has been predominantly political/financial vs. educational.

A number of critiques of the Glass et al. work since then (Hedges & Stock, 1983; Slavin, 1989; Cooper, 1989) have cast some doubt on the extent of the reported significance of reduced class size. However the research to date also shows significant improvements for reduced class size with more than 100 hours of instruction. These subsequent studies also gave evidence of a great many more factors involved in overall achievement.

While some recent reports assert there is very little to support reduction in class size respective of short-term student achievement gains, the research to date has strong implications for language education: beginners, students of low ability, and students of low motivation can be best helped by reduced teacher to student ratio (Shaver & Nuhn, 1971; Robinson & Wittebols, 1986; Cooper, 1989). This places educational priorities at odds with political agenda which seek to provide a short-term financial rationale for curriculum parameters.

Small classes provide teachers the opportunity to concentrate on the class environment. Non-achievement factors studied show there is greater support for the effects of small class size in overall school environment and management, and classroom instruction (Glass et al., 1982; Robinson and Wittebols 1986). Variables positively influenced by reduced class size include teachers moral, absence frequency, expectations for students, job satisfaction (Elam 1973), work load (size and frequency), opportunity for professional growth, quality of student-teacher interaction, increased motivation, increased quality. Crucial cognitive load variables—quality of monitoring and instructional time (Carroll, 1963; Bloom, 1976)—are favourably effected. Students' attitude, attention span, self-image, mental health, and motivation improved while misbehavior and absences decreased in frequency (Cahen et al. ,1983; Carter, 1984).

Instruction variables positively effected by reduced class size include teacher's knowledge of the pupils (student individualisation), increased dyadic interaction (Cahen et al., 1983), variety of activities and adaptation to students needs, informality, quality of class aids, classroom organisation and task structure, assessment and class environment.

Studies of small class size have also revealed why benefits are often not realised. Teachers may not change their approach with smaller classes and the same methodology that is effective in managing large classes does not take advantage of smaller classes (Cahen et al., 1983; Robinson and Wittebols, 1986; Shapson et al., 1980). Some of the more common problems noted have been inadequate monitoring as the increased activity level raises the total teaching load in class. However, it is also true that smaller class gains are not immediately obvious and many studies that discredit small classes have engaged study periods that were too short for measurable improvement.

The research tells us more about the problems of the large class than what is in our power to do about those problems. Administrative barriers imposed by curriculum, schedule and materials controls have also been noted as inhibitors that involve the teachers but lay well outside of their control. Physical barriers such as classroom size and school accessibility are also impediments that the teacher can not control. But the longer teachers are left out of the administrative loop, the greater the potential loss of the very skills they were educated for, rendering their specialised professional education largely ineffective and irrelevant (Apple and Jungck, 1990). Factors effecting student attitude, although influenced by the class and the teacher are so complex as to make a serious lack of motivation nearly insurmountable in any classroom. It is unrealistic for teachers to believe they can effect all of the problems encountered in the large classroom and overcome them by attention to the variables mentioned above. It is even more unrealistic to impose such expectations on the faculty.

Promoting Individualisation and Interaction: Class Management and Teacher Expectations of Students' Active Learning

Small class research does not empower teachers to reduce the size of their classes certainly. But it does inform teachers as to which areas to focus limited time and resources. A primary advantage of the small class is the teacher's enhanced opportunity to spend more time focused on the individual student. There are a ways of enhancing this aspect in the large class as well.

Although individualised instruction is problematic in a crowd, memorising student names and faces draws the students into interactive dyads and allows teachers to focus interaction—particularly important in disruptive or off-task behaviour. This task can be aided by each student possessing a desk placard containing the student's name in bold letters and a picture on one side and the student's number on the other side. Before class, students retrieve their placard from the teacher and the remaining placards can be used to quickly record absences. The placards serve two purposes—identification and recording attendance. In addition, the teacher can use them to help memorise students' names and faces.

Misbehavior is a natural part of human relations and it is hardly surprising when it occurs in the classroom. Misunderstanding is usually the culprit here. Teachers tend to perceive the student's actions in light of the teacher's own perspective. Teachers can improve the class environment and the quality of interaction by providing the students with guidelines for their responsibilities in the classroom. In this way the students are brought into the process of monitoring their behaviour and the process of learning. This can reduce the need for individualised instruction providing the students assume a greater responsibility for their behaviour.

Clear guidelines are effective in involving the students and should be implemented early. During the first class period, a syllabus with daily activities and a student behavior contract which includes grading procedures and class rules translated into the students' native language should be distributed and explained in a small group setting. The student should sign these to signify that they understand and agree to the grading procedures and class rules. They should keep a copy with the translation for further reference. These records also constitute documentation for administrative guidelines. They are also a ready reference for daily activities and can smooth out the process of activities and responsibilities reducing time for explanation and transition between activities.

Teachers should write the daily activities, objectives and homework assignments on the board before the class to help eliminate confusion and aide the students' understanding of why a lesson is important. It is also true that students often read a foreign language better then they understand it verbally. This procedure enables them frame their thoughts for the day.

Research has consistently shown that traditional lecture methods dominate college and university classrooms practices. Chickering and Gamson (1987) suggest that students must do more than just listen. They must read, write, discuss, or be engaged in problem-solving.

To be actively involved, students must engage in higher-order thinking tasks such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Several studies have shown that students prefer strategies promoting actively learning over traditional lectures. Research has also shown that active learning techniques are comparable to lectures in promoting the mastery of content but superior to lectures in promoting the development of students' skills in thinking and writing. In addition, cognitive research has demonstrated that a significant number of individuals have learning styles that are best served by pedagogical techniques other than lecturing. Therefore, a thoughtful and informed approach to skillful teaching involves the instructor becoming knowledgeable about the many ways of promoting active learning. Further, each faculty member should engage in self-reflection and be provided the opportunity to explore alternative approaches to instruction.

There are several modifications of the traditional lectures in the classroom that incorporate active learning (Penner, 1984). By allowing students to consolidate their notes by pausing at intervals during the lecture for several minutes, the students will learn significantly more (Ruhl, Hughes, and Schloss, 1987). The teacher will further enhance learning by inserting a brief demonstration or short ungraded writing exercise followed by class discussion. Other modified lecture types include the feedback lecture, which consists of two mini lectures separated by a small-group discussion built around a study guide and the guided lecture, in which students listen to a 20 or 30 minute presentation without taking notes, followed by writing for five minutes about what they remember and concluding the class time in small groups for clarifying and elaborating.

The single greatest barrier to effective use of these techniques is the faculty members' ability to try new techniques. This "risk " includes the possibility that the students will not participate, the faculty member may feel a loss of control, lack necessary skills, or be criticised for teaching in an unorthodox manner. These potential obstacles can be easily overcome with careful and thoughtful planning.

In teaching, as well as many other aspects of life, people usually get what they expect. Expect the best of the students and appeal to them though words and actions. Teachers must first be convinced that the day's lesson is important and needed in their education. The teacher must elucidate this importance to the students through activity and demeanor. This requires energy and activity. Moving around the room while lecturing and by constantly checking on group and individual work will help show the students commitment and keep most of them awake. The lectures or instructions should be well-structured and use of the board to explain ideas is helpful in including the different types of learner styles. Involve the students in learning by asking questions during lectures by using their first names is an effective method. Establishing personal relationships during class by calling on students by name will help break them into individuals

Interactive Group Methods for Dealing with Large Classes

Freeman (1985) reminds us that even the most experienced foreign language teachers may be forgiven for occasionally feeling that there exists a hopeless gap between the theory of communication methodology and the reality of their classroom situation: "There is no greater strain placed on a teacher's love of teaching than having to teach oral English in a large class."

Here we delineate group strategies that specifically address the oral English class environment in large Japanese university classes. Group work and student leaders are a possible intervention that can bestow some of the benefits of smaller classes by breaking them down into manageable and knowable subunits.

Permanent groups of three or four offer one approach to building an environment that involves the students in the learning process. Each group contains a leader, recorder, getter, and reporter and each person in the group is directly responsible for participation in every assignment. The leader directs the group and monitors participation, the recorder writes down the group's answers, the getter acquires needed supplies such as handouts, and the reporter is responsible for reporting the group's conclusions. The teacher can monitor the activity of the group from the reports they return or monitor specific individuals in a rotating pattern if the teacher suspects that some are not wholly involved.

Another approach for bridging the gap between theory and reality is LIFE, ("Learner-centred, Imagination-driven, Fluency and Enjoyment-oriented system) . This incorporates many of the features that have evinced viable large class management features. Particularly influential for the development of LIFE has been the work of Hywel Coleman. He used a taxonomy of public events which divides them into either 'spectacles' or 'festivals' to draw a distinction between the conventional and the new styles of large class interaction (1987). Coleman describes his approach to teaching large classes as 'learning festivals' which are distinguished by three features: all participants are equally active; the activity is by necessity interactive in nature; the distinction between teacher and learner is minimised. The role of the teacher may at times be as an equal participant in the activity, but before everything else the learning festival teacher must be the facilitator, creating the necessary environment in which the learners' goals can be achieved.

The LIFE lesson too takes the form of a learning festival and the LIFE teacher is very much a facilitator. However, a consideration of the practicalities of what this role actually entails in the specific context of large Japanese university classes is that teacher must be humane and authoritarian. Certainly, it is self-evident teachers hold humanism in language teaching as a 'good thing.' However, as has been pointed out by Stevik (1990) there is considerably less agreement about what the term actually means or how its objectives should be realised. Specifically in the present context, how should we deal with classes of fifty or more non-English major freshmen with little or no interest in English who are only there to satisfy the credit requirements of the university? Surely the system is asking us to fight battles that have already been lost elsewhere. Yet even here LIFE is able to create the conditions for successful humanistic learning to take place, but it does so by despotic means.

Stated briefly, LIFE learners work in groups of two teams of three to complete task-sheets for which they are awarded points. The task-sheets comprise various information-and reasoning-gap based tasks which can only be completed by exchanging information between teams. Learners are free to choose their groups and can change groups each lesson. The two teams in each group are physically separated by a gap sufficiently wide (at least one metre) to render clandestine muttering of information in Japanese between them impossible. Within teams learners are always permitted to speak quietly in Japanese so that all the inevitable peer-confirmation may be done legally, but when the inter-team information exchanges start they must only speak in English, and fairly loud English too if they are to communicate their message successfully.

There are no examinations in LIFE. Instead, points are awarded at the end of each lesson as an average to the team as a whole with each member receiving the same number, irrespective of how diligently he or she worked. Unwarranted absence from class means no points for that lesson. The number of points accumulated during the year-long course determine a learner's final grade. This creates a powerful incentive for learners to cooperate both within and between teams to complete the tasks and leads to an extremely positive classroom atmosphere.

As mentioned above, clearly defined rules make the students' responsibilities and role more easily recognised. The rules of LIFE are described in Sadean detail on a handout and the first lesson of each course is entirely occupied with going over this so that learners are clear about what they will be expected to do and what the point penalty will be, for example, letting a pocket bell go off during the lesson. The rule sheet's absolute lack of ambiguity about what constitutes unacceptable behaviour and the consequent depersonalisation of any conflict between teacher and learner is one of LIFE's greatest strengths. In subsequent lessons, after a brief introduction to the topic and the task sheet by the teacher, the learners must take complete responsibility for their work. Meanwhile the carefree teacher merely wanders round the classroom from group to group: part facilitator, part resource, part warder. The quality and amount of monitoring time is enhanced as the class is restructured along lines that more closely approximate the small class advantages.

Conclusion

Teachers need support in and outside of the class if they are to take advantage of the opportunities as they arise. To that end, the collegial community is vital in the quality of the school environment and the quality of instruction. If the school environment does not encourage collegial interaction, put your energies into the professional associations. Develop a workable system to monitor your students' attendance and education—there are any number of options available within teachers' associations. Use group work in class, it will lessen the stress of working with large groups, and free you up for more and better monitoring and increase the opportunity for student learning and development of leadership skills. Hone your lecture technique so that it includes feed back and is delivered in small digestible segments—other teachers can be invaluable in providing feedback. Remember, there are answers to your problems but they won't answer all problems in the next five minutes. To put it aphoristically, education is a career, not a hobby.

Notes

1 Formally known as the "Elementary and Secondary Education Act, " passed by Congress in 1965.

2 Formally known as the "Educational Consolidation and Improvement Act."

3 The term here is pulled from the literature but has not been sufficiently explained as to why improving the environment will not lead to increased achievement.

4 Designed and developed by E. Haig who has used LIFE for the last four years.

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Section Seven

Testing and Evaluation

English Language Entrance Examinations in Japan: Problems and Solutions

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For years, EFL teachers in Japan have recognized that many Japanese students study English for the primary, or even sole, purpose of passing high school or university entrance exams. Furthermore, most of the EFL teachers I have talked to about this issue say, in one way or another, that the English language exams have a negative effect on their teaching. In particular, many teachers say that both the content of the exams and the types of questions negatively impact their teaching and the language learning of their students. If this is a pervasive situation, and I think it is, then the EFL teachers in Japan should be in open rebellion. However, since open rebellion is not likely in this particular context, teachers should at least arm themselves (by learning as much as they can about the entrance examination system) so they can protect themselves and their students from the negative effects of the entrance exams on language teaching.

To that end, a Japanese colleague and I wrote two articles that:

1. described the 1993 entrance examinations at 21 universities including 10 public, 10 private, and the "Center" exam (Brown & Yamashita, 1995a), and
2. further investigated the 1994 exams at the same universities and how they differed from the 1993 exams (Brown & Yamashita, 1995b).

In other articles, I have:

3. argued for the use of listening tests on the university entrance exams (Brown & Christensen, 1987),
4. shown how test results are sometimes misinterpreted in Japan (Brown, 1993),
5. discussed the nature of *examination hell*, the social and psychological consequences of this exam system, the effects of entrance exams on adolescent life, the egalitarian roots of the exams, the relationship of the exams to career opportunities, the nature of *jukus* and *ronin*, the responsibilities involved in making decisions with such exams, and the washback effect of the English language entrance exams on EFL teaching (Brown, 1995a),
6. provided English definitions for some of the primary Japanese terminology that students use to describe *examination hell*, the examination system, and the examination preparation industry (Brown, In press),
7. discussed the *washback* effect of the university entrance exams on English language teaching in Japanese high schools (Brown & Kay, 1995), and
8. raised a number of these entrance examination issues in the public eye in Japan (Brown & Gorsuch, 1995).

But the purpose of my speech today is not to brag about all the publications I have written on the issue. Rather, I want to focus from a language testing perspective on some of the specific problems that the English language entrance exams have, and more importantly, I want to explore how these problems can be solved. Following the advice I gave in my own language testing book (Brown, 1995d), I will examine issues related to item quality, test revision strategies, test reliability, and test validity. I will also propose an agenda for change including discussion of openness issues, test development standards, professional development and scrutiny, and the need for much more research. I hope that discussion of these issues and any reform that results from such discussion will eventually help to put the university entrance examination "system" in Japan on a much more solid footing.

Item Quality

Item Quality Problems

In many entrance exam situations in Japan, a group of English teachers is given the task of producing a test that will be used for deciding who will be admitted to their university or deciding what level of English the students should study in that university. These are important decisions about the students' lives, yet these teams of test writers often have little or no experience in writing language tests, the test writers seldom receive guidance in how to write the items, and worse yet, the people are kept isolated from the rest of the world for security reasons.

In my experience, even professional test-item writers can only *estimate* the level and content of test questions that will be appropriate for a given group of students. As a result, even professional test-item writers will produce many items that are ineffective and do not work well with a particular group of students. In my experience, the number of ineffective items usually amounts to about one-third to one-half of those written. Since even professional item writers in the United States and elsewhere produce many items that are ineffective, I would assume that inexperienced item writers in Japan do so, too.

Item Quality Solutions

The solution to the problem of ineffective items is to pilot the test questions and perform item analysis on them. In fact, from a North American perspective, a test that remains unanalyzed is not worth giving to the students because, without item analysis, testers have no way of knowing how a set of items fits a particular group.

One problem that may occur, if items are not piloted, is that many of the items may be too difficult or too easy for the group of students being tested. Such items will not help in building a test at the appropriate level for spreading the students out into a normal distribution. A simple statistic called *item facility* (also known as item difficulty or item easiness) can be used to examine this issue and solve this potential problem.

Another problem that may occur, if items are not piloted, is that even those items at the right level of difficulty for the group may, for some reason, act quite differently from the rest of the items, that is, the low proficiency students may be answering them correctly, while the high proficiency students answer them incorrectly. A simple statistic called *item discrimination* can be used to examine this issue and solve this problem.

In short, in my view, failing to pilot the items used on entrance examinations borders on being unethical and is definitely unprofessional. After all, the entrance exams in Japan are used to make important decisions—decisions that will affect the children of Japan for the rest of their lives. Why is it, then, that the test designers cannot make the effort to make sure the test items they are using are of the best possible quality?

Test Revision

Test Revision Problems

From what many teachers have told me, the high school and university entrance examinations in Japan are seldom if ever revised or improved in any systematic manner. As described above, even the best entrance exams are often developed by a team of inexperienced test writers in the following five steps (see the second list below to understand why the numbering is out of sequence):

1. carefully develop the test,
6. administer the test ,
7. score the test ,
8. report the scores to the students, and
10. publish the test.

These five steps (numbered to match the list below) are fine as far as they go, but they leave out five other crucial steps that could be used to make the quality of the tests much better.

Typically in the United States, we use the same five steps in developing our tests, but we add some very important steps as shown in boldfaced type in the list of steps that follows (for more details on these steps, see Brown, 1995c, or 1995d):

1. carefully develop the test,
2. pilot the test,
3. analyze the results of the pilot administration statistically,
4. select those items that fit the group being tested and discriminate well,
5. **revise the test based on the statistical analyses,**
6. administer the test **under optimum conditions,**
7. score the test **as reliably as possible,**
8. report the scores to the students,
9. **analyze the final results statistically,** and
10. publish the test **and a technical manual that describes the test development, norms,**

reliability, validity, etc..

According to my information, the high schools and universities in Japan typically develop their entrance examinations using only steps one, part of six and seven, all of eight and part of 10, that is, the teachers on the testing team carefully develop the test; then they administer and score it and report the scores to the students; finally, they publish the test for public scrutiny (for examples, see Koko-Eigo Kenkyu, 1994a and 1994b).

These observations mean that the entrance examinations in Japan are most often not piloted, analyzed statistically, or revised. In addition, according to my information, the test administrations are often done under less than optimum conditions and the scoring is often less than maximally reliable. Furthermore, statistical analyses are seldom applied to the final results or reported publicly in a manual. From my perspective as an American language testing professional, I find the entrance exam development practices unethical and unprofessional. If I developed a test in this way in the United States, I would be attacked professionally and perhaps legally as well. And, I would deserve both.

From my perspective, the problem is that many or even most of the high school and university entrance examination development teams are skipping far too many steps. In particular, because they are skipping steps two through five and the last parts of steps six and seven, all of step nine and much of ten, they and the public have no way of knowing anything about how well their entrance examinations functioned or how accurate they were in making decisions based on the exams.

Test Revision Solutions

The solution to this problem seems clear: All ten of the steps listed above should be used in developing the entrance examinations in Japan at each and every institution that wants the privilege of doing entrance testing.

When I have suggested this solution in lectures throughout Japan, teachers have raised the specter of test security; "Oh so sorry, we cannot analyze and revise tests because of test security. Is very big problem in Japan." The speakers appear to believe that such a statement ends any need for further discussion of the issue. But to me, this is a classic straw man argument. Test security is not the issue; test security is a straw man. The inability to provide test security while doing a responsible job of testing is the real issue.

Organizations like Educational Testing Service manage to pilot test items in various ways without compromising test security, as do many other organizations both public and private in the United States. And, I firmly believe that anything American organizations can do, Japanese organizations can also do—probably much more effectively—once the Japanese decide to do it.

Several strategies can be used to securely pilot test items. In fact, three come immediately to mind: geographical distancing, temporal distancing, and interspersion of items on operational versions of the tests. *Geographical distancing* involves piloting test items in a place geographically distant from the cite where the exams will ultimately be given. For instance, a university in Kyushu might work out an agreement with a university in Hokkiado to pilot each others' items. The goal would be for each university to build a pool of items with known statistical characteristics that test writers could draw on in creating new tests. *Temporal distancing* involves piloting items over a long period of time, building up a large pool of items with known statistical characteristics, and using those items at a later date (in ways that are not predictable). *Interspersion of items* on operational tests involves putting some "experimental" items on every version of the test, year after year, and building a pool of items (with known statistical characteristics) that test writers could draw on. Sets of experimental items might even be different across the tests of a particular administration as long as 100 or so students (representative of the whole range of abilities in the student population) took each set of experimental items. Unlike the rest of the test, the experimental items would not have to be published after the tests were administered because they are *experimental* and because *they are not counted in the students' scores.*

This issue of piloting items in a secure manner is an important one. In fact, lack of piloting is the single issue that makes Japanese entrance exams most different from exams created by trained psychometricians elsewhere in the world. I might understand the lack of secure piloting if people were telling me that Japanese high schools and universities do not have the resources necessary to produce decent tests, or that they do not have staff with the know-how to produce effective tests. At least, such statements would be honest. But, I cannot believe that test security is an insurmountable issue which eliminates the possibility of piloting items before using them.

In short, in my view, the problem lies in the fact that many, if not most, of the universities and high schools that administer entrance examinations are simply too traditional or too understaffed or too under-financed or too lazy to do what is necessary to produce professional quality tests. And, to me, that attitude borders on being unethical and is definitely unprofessional. After all, the entrance exams are used to make important decisions—decisions that will affect the children of Japan for the rest of their lives.

Test Reliability

Reliability Problems

Test reliability can be defined as the degree to which a test is measuring consistently. Whenever we measure anything, we would like that measurement to be consistent. If the post office is measuring the weight of a package to determine how much postage you should pay and the clerk puts it on the scale twice, you would want the weight to come up exactly the same both times (or at least be very similar). If the package turned out to weigh 400 grams one time and 700 the next, you would complain. The problem that you would be complaining about is one of reliability. Such a scale would not seem to be measuring reliably.

In language testing, we also want our scales to be reliable, that is, we want to get the same (or very similar) scores for each student if we administer a test several times, or if we use several forms of the same test.

It is a fact that all measurements have errors. The question is not whether a measurement tool makes errors, but rather how much error a particular scale will produce. Such errors are also found on all language tests so it is not a question of whether errors are likely to occur, but rather how much error we can expect. On the TOEFL for instance, ETS (1995) reports that we can expect about plus or minus 15 point fluctuations in students' scores 68 percent of the time by chance alone. If we want to be 95 percent sure, we can expect fluctuations of 30 points (plus or minus). Thus ETS recognizes that there is error in their test scores and has done the analyses necessary to estimate how much effect that error is likely to have on decision making.

In several articles, Yamashita-san and I have suggested that the university entrance examinations in Japan may lack reliability. O'Sullivan (1995), in a letter to *The Language Teacher*, suggested that we had no evidence that the entrance examinations were unreliable, to which we answered:

> ...it is primarily the responsibility of the test developers (not the general public or the teaching profession or Brown and Yamashita) to provide evidence of the reliability and validity of the tests.

As the American Psychological Association (CDSEPT, 1985) put it, "Typically, test developers and publishers have primary responsibility for obtaining and reporting evidence concerning reliability and errors of measurement adequate for the intended uses" (p. 19). To my knowledge, little if any such evidence exists for the entrance examinations in Japan.

I have requested such information from a number of institutions and never gotten any. Since I suspected that such evidence might simply not exist, I also sought access to data in order to study these issues myself. In all cases, I have encountered resistance, secrecy, and a total lack of cooperation. Ladies and gentlemen, a black hole of information exists about these important examinations from which no light seems to escape. I, for one, can only conclude that problems *may* exist with the reliability of these tests. Naturally, I would welcome studies of these issues, recommend them as a solution to current shortcomings, and would myself happily participate.

Reliability Solutions

Reliability problems are not difficult to solve. Test developers can and should demonstrate the reliability of their test(s) using statistical techniques; they can also enhance test reliability, and strengthen their decision reliability.

Demonstrate reliability. How can the reliability of a language test be demonstrated? Actually, that is quite simple. Three strategies are commonly used to estimate the reliability of a test:

1. *Test-retest reliability* is an investigation of the consistency of a test over time. A test is administered on two different occasions to the same group of students and a correlation coefficient is calculated between the two sets of scores. A high correlation coefficient (one approaching 1.00) indicates a high degree of test-retest reliability.

2. *Equivalent forms reliability* is an investigation of the consistency of a test across forms. Two forms of a test are administered to the same group of students and a correlation coefficient is calculated between the two sets of scores. A high correlation coefficient (one approaching 1.00) indicates a high degree of

equivalent forms reliability.

3. *Internal consistency reliability* is an investigation of the consistency of a test across items. A single test is administered to a group of students on one occasion. Then, a formula (for instance, K-R20, K-R21, Cronbach alpha, etc.) is applied to the results of that administration and a reliability estimate is found. A high reliability estimate (one approaching 1.00) indicates a high degree of internal consistency reliability.

All three of these strategies can be used to statistically estimate the reliability of language tests, but the most commonly applied is the internal consistency strategy, probably because it is the easiest to deal with logistically: the test developer does not have to administer a test twice to the same group of students, or develop and administer two forms of the test. Instead, internal consistency reliability is based on a single administration of a single test.

The TOEFL, which is virtually the only English as a second language proficiency test that is widely used in the United States for university admissions decisions, has been repeatedly shown to be very reliable. For instance, ETS (1995) reports a respectable overall score reliability of .94, which can be interpreted as meaning that the TOEFL is 94 percent reliable and six percent unreliable. How many of the Japanese entrance examinations can report their reliability at all, much less a reliability that high?

Studying the reliability of a test is very very easy. I simply do not understand why Japanese high schools and universities are not studying these issues for their exams on a yearly basis. I'm sure that the educators in these institutions want post office scales to be reliable. Why don't they seem to care enough to insure that their entrance exams are equally reliable?

Enhance test reliability. Many factors may threaten the reliability of a test. Poorly written items, unclear test directions, and badly produced audio tapes are all potential problems with a test that can reduce its reliability. Other factors having to do with scoring like unreliable ratings (for writing samples, translations, interviews, etc.), mistakes in the answer key, and errors in adding scores for various subtests may also reduce the reliability of a test. Still other factors having to do with the students themselves (for example, fatigue, stress, emotional distress, lack of motivation, etc.) may reduce the reliability of the test.

In general, responsible test developers in the United States and elsewhere in the world do everything they can to eliminate or at least reduce the effects of such factors on the reliability of their tests. I suggest a number of strategies for doing so in my language testing book (Brown, 1995d). However, as I stated above, even the best tests have some unreliability. As a consequence, some energy must be put into studying the reliability of every exam in order to find out the degree to which efforts to enhance the reliability have been successful and in order to find new ways to enhance it.

Strengthen decision reliability. Even after studying the reliability of the entrance exams and enhancing the test reliability, test developers must also take into account reliability issues directly related to the decisions they are making with the test. In the case of entrance examinations, those decisions typically involve deciding which students should be admitted and which should be rejected from a given institution. Decision reliability is important because, as Brown and Yamashita (1995a, p. 26) put it:
Perhaps the single most important fact about these very competitive entrance examinations is that the results are used to make decisions about students' lives—important decisions. As such, the examinations must be of the highest quality if they are to be fair to the students. Enhancing decision reliability is primarily a fairness issue, and it involves using the standard error of measurement to make responsible decisions.

The *standard error of measurement* is a statistic (calculated from the standard deviation of a test and a reliability estimate). The standard error of measurement describes the unreliable variance of a test in interpretable, test-score points. As such, the standard error of measurement can be used as a band of scores plus-or-minus around a cut-point that represents the band of unreliable decision making around that decision point (with certain degrees of probability). Once that band of unreliable decision making has been identified, administrators can seek additional information about the students who fall within that band, so that decision reliability will be enhanced.

For example, as mentioned above, the standard error of measurement on the TOEFL is about 15 points. At the University of Hawaii, we require a TOEFL score of 500 for students to be admitted. However, we recognize that unreliable variation in scores amounts to a 15 point band plus or minus around that cut-point of 500—a 15 point band where unreliable decisions are likely to be made. Hence, for students down as low as 485, as a matter of institutional policy, we consider additional information.

In short, in my view, any failures to check the reliability of the entrance exams, to enhance the test reliability of these tests, and to strengthen their decision reliability (using the standard error of measurement) border on being unethical and are definitely unprofessional. After all, the entrance exams are used to make important decisions—decisions that will affect the children of Japan for the rest of their lives.

Test Validity

Test Validity Problems

Test validity is the degree to which a test is measuring what it claims to be measuring. For instance, if a particular university creates an English entrance examination that is designed to test overall English language ability, then that is exactly what the exam should measure, and if it does so, the exam is said to be valid. Unfortunately, a number of teachers have raised questions about the validity of the entrance examinations saying that they use out of date testing methods and are mismatched with language teaching curriculum in Japan.

Out-of-date testing methods. Many of the entrance examinations include large numbers of multiple-choice grammar questions. In the view of many ESL/EFL teachers around the world, such discrete-point grammar questions are so unrelated to the current theories and practices of language teaching that serious questions arise as to the validity of the entrance exams (for more on these issues, see Brown & Yamashita, 1995a and c).

Other out-of-date item types include translation tasks, of which there are a large number on the university entrance exams. As far back as 1961, Robert Lado (1961, pp. 32-33) questioned the validity of translation tasks. In his own words:

> The ability to translate is a special skill. People who speak a foreign language well are not necessarily those who translate most effectively, although there is a correlation between knowledge of the foreign language and the capacity to translate. Some whose control of a foreign language is defective are nevertheless able to translate written material at considerable speed and reasonably well. ... Consequently, a translation test is not valid as a test of mastery of a foreign language.

Another way that entrance examinations are out-of-date is in the way they are administered. Consider the fact that, while computer labs abound in Japan, computerized testing, which is being developed on both large and small scales in the United States and elsewhere, has not even been considered in the university entrance exams of Japan (for more on uses of computers in language testing, see Brown, 1992).

In short, the abundance of out-of-date multiple-choice grammar items and translation items, as well as the pencil-and-paper delivery systems used on the entrance exams all pose potential threats to the validity of these exams.

Mismatches with curriculum. Even the reading portions of the exams, which are sometimes reasonably well-written, are often based on very difficult texts which are unlike the simplified texts that students are accustomed to in their English classes (also discussed in Brown & Yamashita, 1995a and c).

In addition, listening comprehension subtests are seldom found on the entrance exams (as discussed in Brown & Christensen, 1987), and speaking components are unheard of. This lack seems strange given the recent Monbusho revisions which added aural skills to the high school English language curricula. As explained in Brown and Yamashita (1995c, p. 98):

> A contradiction has also developed between what is included on these university entrance examinations and the Monbusho (1989) guidelines implemented in April 1993 for junior and senior high school English teaching. The guidelines advocate the addition of listening and/or speaking to the curriculum, but our analysis indicates that only six universities [out of 21] in 1993 and four [out of 21] in 1994 included even a listening component.

What does this contradiction mean? Put simply, if the proposed Monbusho curriculum reforms are theoretically sound and worthwhile and the high school and university entrance exams are not testing what is now included in the curriculum, then the entrance examinations lack validity.

Excuses. What some apologists for the entrance exams have said is that testing listening, extended writing, or speaking would be too expensive. I think that is nonsense. Very high fees are charged for the entrance examinations. For instance, a Japanese friend of mine just paid

40,000 yen to register her son to take a private university exam. And, tens of thousands of students take these exams (with most students failing, but paying for the privilege). Where do all those millions of yen go? And, why doesn't that money go into developing effective and valid communicative language tests? As I put it elsewhere, (Brown & Kay, 1995)

> ...what the universities are saying in effect is that Japanese young people are not important enough for the universities to find sufficient resources to test them properly—even though the universities charge the students very high fees for taking tests.

All in all, many reasons exist for doubting the validity of the entrance exams in Japan. And, as with reliability, the responsibility rests with the test developers (not the general public or the teaching profession or Brown and Yamashita) to demonstrate the validity of their tests. As the American Psychological Association put it (CDSEPT, 1985, p. 13), "evidence of validity should be presented for the major types of inferences for which the use of a test is recommended."

Test Validity Solutions.

Educational institutions in Japan can pursue three solutions to the validity problems: each institution that gives entrance exams should study and demonstrate the validity of their exams; the validity of existing tests should be enhanced; and the decision validity of the tests should be strengthened.

Demonstrate validity. How can the validity of a language test be demonstrated? As with reliability, it is actually quite simple. Three strategies are commonly used to study the validity of a test:

> 1. Content validity - This validity strategy involves demonstrating clearly that the content of the test matches the content of the curriculum or the domain being tested. This strategy frequently involves expert judgments about the degree of match between the test items and curriculum goals and objectives.
>
> 2. Construct validity - This approach to the study of validity usually involves setting up an experiment to demonstrate that the test does indeed test the psychological construct it claims to be testing. This strategy sometimes takes the form of a differential groups study or an intervention study (for a full explanation, see Brown, 1995d).
>
> 3. Criterion-related validity - This method of studying validity involves comparing test results with some well-respected independent measure of the same construct. Such a study is considered *concurrent* if the new test and the criterion measure are administered at the same time. The study is termed *predictive* if the new test is being studied to see how well it predicts some measure taken at a later time.

All three of these strategies are commonly used to study the validity of language tests. However, the strongest validity arguments are those based on two or even all three of these strategies.

The TOEFL, which is virtually the only English as a second language proficiency test that is used in the United States for university admissions decisions, has been repeatedly shown to be valid. For instance, ETS (1995) presents evidence for the content, criterion-related, *and* construct validity of the TOEFL.

How many of the Japanese universities have studied the validity of their entrance examinations? Yet, apparently, studying the validity of a test is relatively easy. I really do not understand why Japanese institutions are not studying these issues for their exams on a yearly basis. Don't they care?

Enhance test validity. As mentioned above, the TOEFL has been shown to be valid using a variety of validity strategies. For years, those arguments sufficed, but then public and professional criticism of the test began to surface, most of which boiled down to the fact that TOEFL was out-of-date in terms of validity. For instance, at this very conference, Savignon's keynote address pointed to the lack of social meaning in the TOEFL. Clearly then, even with ample evidence of validity in the test manuals, the TOEFL has come under attack for being out-of-step with developments in communicative language teaching.

Educational Testing Service has responded admirably to such complaints by developing the *Test of Written English* (TWE) and *Test of Spoken English* (TSE) programs, thereby including both extensive writing and speaking skills in the TOEFL suite of tests. In addition, ETS has worked hard on the TOEFL 2000 project, which is a major effort to completely revamp and update the TOEFL. How many Japanese institutions can say that they have writing and speaking components or that they have worked as hard as ETS to enhance the validity of their entrance exams?

In addition, in the United States and elsewhere, ideas about performance testing and other alternative methods of testing have been explored in recent years so that the validity of our exams can be enhanced (for more information, see the special alternative assessment issue of *TESOL Journal*, Vol. 5, No. 1). Are any such efforts being made in Japan? I think the answer is a resounding **NO**.

Strengthen decision validity. Even after studying the validity of the entrance exams and enhancing that validity, test developers must also take into account validity issues directly related to the decisions they are making with the test. In the case of entrance examinations, the decisions are typically made about who should be admitted and who should be rejected from a given institution. Carefully considering decision validity involves setting the cut-point (or acceptable standard) for passing the exam in a rational manner, and using multiple sources and types of information.

As for *standards setting*, a number of rational strategies can be used to set cut-points on a test. Three main categories of standards-setting methods are available to test developers and decision makers:

1. *State mastery methods* set standards in a dichotomous manner. Students are either considered to have the trait being measured or not have it. Many problems have been associated with this method.
2. *Test-centered continuum methods* rely on expert judgements of the test content to set standards.
3. *Student-centered continuum methods* focus on expert judgements of student performance to set standards.

Have any of these strategies been used in Japan, or do the test developers simply decide on the pass-fail score because it feels right? The question entrance exam developers need to address is: how are standards set for the cut-points used in deciding who will be admitted and who will not? (For much more on standards setting, see Brown, 1995d.)

As for *multiple sources and types of information*, according to Fujita (1991, p. 155), a majority of universities, particularly the elite universities, admit students solely on the basis of their entrance examination scores. In the United States, none of the major admissions tests (for instance, SAT, ACT, GRE, or TOEFL) are meant to be used as the sole criterion for admissions to any university. Indeed, the user's manuals for these tests all make a point of warning against the practice of using a single test score for this purpose, saying further, in one way or another, that the test scores should be used along with other types of information like previous grade point average, letters of recommendation, interviews, essays written by the students, other test scores, etc. Going even further, I argue in several places (Brown, 1987, 1995d) that most academic decisions should be made on the basis of multiple test scores (with various types of tests including proficiency, placement, diagnostic, and achievement) along with other types of information (like personal interviews, school records, feedback from professors, etc.).

In discussing the National Council on Education Reform (NCER) report (1985), Shimahara (1991, p. 133) says:

> In short, NCER [1985] has heightened an awareness of the need for alternative methods of recruiting applicants for employment in government and private industry: 'multidimensional and diversified' strategies to evaluate individual abilities throughout individual careers and strategies to improve what the Japanese often refer to as *gakureki shakai* a social structure that places excessive emphasis on one's specific school background as a criterion for employment and promotion.

As part of this process, perhaps the Japanese high schools and universities should develop multidimensional strategies for their admissions decisions.

In short, in my view, any failure to study the validity of the entrance exams, to enhance the validity of these tests, and to strengthen their decision validity (using rational standards-setting methods, and multiple sources and types of information) border on being unethical and are definitely unprofessional. After all, the entrance exams are used to make important decisions—decisions that will affect the children of Japan for the rest of their lives.

An Agenda for Change

So far, I have pointed to some major problems that the entrance exams in Japan have—problems involving item quality, test revision, test reliability, and test validity. I have also suggested solutions to each of these sets of problems. I would now like to briefly discuss four areas of general testing policy that could also be improved: openness issues, test development standards, professional development and scrutiny, and the need for much more research. In my opinion, improvement in these four areas would help to enhance the entire entrance examination decision-making process.

Openness Issues

As pointed out in Brown and Yamashita (1995a & c), many institutions openly provide their examinations for publication on a yearly basis. Such publication of tests is laudable and useful because it allows for public scrutiny. However, that is not enough. These institutions are also responsible for making sure that their tests are efficient, reliable, and valid. I have a number of reasons to believe that many of the examinations may be weak in all three areas. Yet, as I pointed out earlier, a black hole of information exists about these important examinations. Unfortunately, without information to the contrary, I can only conclude that problems *may* exist with the efficiency, reliability, and validity of these tests. Openness about these issues would not only allow the high schools and universities to defend the quality of their tests but also force those that are not already doing so to analyze the efficiency, reliability, and validity of their tests.

In countries other than Japan, test developers commonly and openly provide technical information about the quality of their tests as well as practical information to help test takers and score users interpret the norms, especially with regard to any particular student's scores. Such openness helps to avoid the appearance of being secretive, sneaky, and dishonest, and promotes open and honest communication between the test developers and the general public.

In the United States, a watch dog organization called *FairTest* serves as a kind of consumer advocate for test takers, making sure that openness and honesty are applied to any examinations that affect young Americans in important ways. Perhaps such an organization would be worthwhile and useful in Japan. I called *FairTest* just before leaving for Japan, and they indicated that they are very willing to send information that might help people in Japan establish a similar organization here. The purpose of such an organization might be to monitor testing practices in Japan and serve as an advocate that takes the point of view of the consumer, that is, such an organization would actually work for the fair treatment of the students who take entrance examinations, and in the process, monitor the efficiency, reliability, and validity of the exams.

For anyone who is interested in contacting them, *FairTest's* phone number is 1-617-864-4810, their e-mail address is <fairtest@aol.com>, and their snail-mail address is:

FairTest
National Center for Fair & Open Testing
342 Broadway
Cambridge, MA 02139 USA

Professional Development and Scrutiny

Unfortunately, as I mentioned above, many or even most of the high school and university entrance examinations are developed by amateurs who know very little about this very specialized area called test development. Is it any wonder, then, that they do not know how to do a truly professional job of test development? Two general steps could be taken to help make such test developers more professional: first, establish standards for testing and, second, establish a systematic test review process.

Establish Standards for Testing. Many of the problems discussed in this speech are avoided by test developers in the United States because, as a profession, they follow the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* (CDSEPT, 1985). This document, which clearly lays out the responsibilities of test developers, was developed jointly by the American Educational Research Association (AERA), American Psychological Association (APA), and National Council on Measurement in Education (NCME).

Other such documents have been prepared independently by various organizations, for example, the Joint Committee on Testing Practices (1988), the Association for Assessment in Counseling (1993), and the National Council on Measurement in Education (1995) have all published their own guidelines for test developers and users, and the American Psychological Association (1986) has even published guidelines for computer-based tests.

Obviously, professional standards for test development and use are very important in the United States. The standards provided in these various documents help test developers to know what is expected of a good test and of them as test developers. Thus, test writers can do a better job of developing their tests. In short, the standards provided by various professional associations help American test developers to practice their trade in a professional manner. If it does not already exist, a similar set of standards fitting the conditions in Japan should immediately be developed by a consortium of important Japanese educational organizations.

Establish a Systematic Test Review Process. In addition, I have always felt that letting the high schools and universities in Japan monitor the quality of their own exams is roughly equivalent to letting the fox guard the chicken coop. In the United States, *Buros Mental Measurements Yearbook* (for example, Kramer & Conoley, 1992) is a periodic publication that provides a collection of reviews of published tests. *Buros* serves as a critical watch dog on all published tests used in North America. The effect of *Buros* reviews is to force openness and foster critical thinking about the tests that are developed for use in the United States. Is there such a regular publication in Japan?

I believe that both the *Standards* and *Buros* tend to keep test developers honest and professional. Similar institutions in Japan might have the same effects. The point is that the entrance examinations in Japan are far too important to be left entirely up to the test designers. Teachers and professors are not infallible; they must be held accountable, perhaps for the first time in history, for the important admissions decisions that they are making because those decisions are so profoundly important to young Japanese lives.

The Need for Much More Research

In his response to the Brown and Yamashita (1995a) article, O'Sullivan (1995, p. 256) suggested that further research should be done on the following three research questions:

> 1. Is there evidence of a topic awareness bias in some tests?
> 2. How harmful is the dependence on translation?
> 3. Can we establish the content and construct validity of these tests?

While interesting, his questions seem a bit too specific and narrow for the immediate research needs vis-a-vis the entrance examinations in Japan. The following research questions are liberally adapted and expanded from Brown and Yamashita (1995d). I hope that they will form at least a start on a research agenda for studying the entrance examinations in Japan:

1. How well do the items on the entrance examinations perform in terms of item facility and discrimination? What statistics should be used to help in selecting items for the entrance examinations? What types of items should be used to improve the quality of the tests and make them more valid?
2. What test development and revision practices are followed in creating the entrance examinations? Would the exams be improved by following the ten steps listed in this speech? What would be the effects on reliability and validity of such revision processes?
3. How are norms established on these tests, and how do they vary from institution to institution and year to year?
4. What evidence exists for the reliability of these entrance examinations (for instance, what is the K-R20, or Cronbach alpha reliability of these tests)?
5. What evidence is there for the decision reliability of these exams (that is, what is the standard error of measurement, and how is it used, if at all, to make admissions decisions responsible and fair, and are additional types of information used for students who fall within this band of unreliable test score variance)?
6. What evidence is there for the content, construct, criterion-related, face, decision, or social validity of these tests (for more on these types of validity, see Brown, 1995b or 1995c)?
7. What evidence is there for the decision validity of the entrance examinations? How are standards set for the cut-points used in deciding who will be admitted and who will not? Are state mastery methods used? Or, test-centered continuum methods? Or, student-centered continuum methods? Are rational methods used at all? (for more on standards setting, see Brown, 1995d) Are multiple sources and types of information used to strengthen the decision validity of the entrance examinations?
8. Why do the examinations cost so much given the relatively cheap and easy-to-score formats that are used? Or put another way, why is it that communicative listening and speaking subtests are not used on these exams even though there is apparently plenty of revenue to support such sound testing practices?
9. What is the impact of the *washback* effect of these tests on the educational system in Japan? In particular, what is their effect on

the teaching of English?

If you already have answers to all of these questions about the entrance exams in Japan, then I apologize; you are doing a fine job. But, if you do not have answers to all of them, it is time to get to work. Failure to do so would be irresponsible.

In fact, in my view, any failure to pilot, analyze, and revise the entrance exams, any failure to check and enhance the reliability of these tests, or failure to strengthen the decision reliability of the tests, any failure to verify and enhance the validity of the exams, or failure to study the decision validity of the exams, any failure to be open, to development testing standards, to insure professional development and scrutiny, or to do the much needed research, any such failures border on being unethical and are definitely unprofessional. After all, the entrance exams in Japan are used to make crucially important decisions—decisions that will affect the children of Japan for the rest of their lives.

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Reliability and a Learner Style Questionnaire

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Recently, interest in classroom research has been on the rise and many classroom researchers are calling for the reliability reports of research instruments such as achievement tests, interviews, questionnaires, and surveys (Chaudron, 1988; Hatch & Lazaraton,1991; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Nevertheless, despite these calls, it is not yet common for classroom researchers to include the reliability figures of their research instruments resulting in methodologically flawed research (Chaudron, 1988; Long, 1990). As more classroom teachers engage in research, the issue of determining and reporting reliability will become more important. The purpose of this paper is to explain what reliability is, to illustrate how to determine reliability using an example of a Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ) from Hinkelman & Pysock (1992), and using the same instrument, to illustrate how the reliability of a research instrument can be improved through instrument revision.

What is Reliability?

Reliability is a statistical procedure used to determine how consistent an instrument is. For the purposes of this paper the term "instrument" will be used to cover any means used by a teacher to elicit and gather data including achievement tests, questionnaires, surveys, and even interviews. If we look at various definitions of reliability given by researchers, the word that appears in almost every definition is the word "consistent" or "consistency" (Davies, 1990; Hatch & Farhady, 1982; Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991; Henning, 1987; Johnson, 1992; Oller, 1979; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Vierra & Pollock, 1992; Weir, 1990). The question that a reliability estimate seeks to answer is how consistent is this instrument? (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991; Johnson, 1992; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

Reliability can be seen as a ratio between the true score and the error score (Bachman, 1990; Brown, 1995; Henning,1987; Hatch & Lazaraton,1991. A true score is what Brown (1995) calls "meaningful variance" by which Brown mean how much the student knows. An error score is what Brown calls "measurement error" which indicates how much error is in the test. Measurement error is produced by anything other than meaningful variance, such as the effect of the student's physical condition, the student's emotional condition, and the test-taking environment (e.g., how hot the room was on the day of the test). Measurement error also results from ambiguous questions, idiomatic language which may not be known or understood by the test takers, and difficult to understand instructions. In other words, when we look at the results of instruments such as tests, surveys, questionnaires, or even the ratings of student interviews, we should think of the score as representing what the student really knows (the true score) plus all the other factors that might interfere (the error score). Looked at in this way, reliability is the ratio of the true score (or meaningful variance) to error score (or measurement error).

Reliability can also be seen as a correlation between two sets of numbers (Davies, 1990; Henning, 1987; Hughes, 1989). As an example, suppose we have the scores for a listening test from a certain class. The test papers are accidentally thrown into the trash and we, with apologies to our students, administer the same test the following week. Then, to our surprise, the original test papers show up. Now we have the first test scores and another set of test scores, all from the same test, the same students, and only a week apart. The scores should be the same, but as we start looking we notice that many students received scores on the second test a few points higher and in some cases lower than the first test. We suppose that the difference is measurement error. We then line up the scores from the two tests to see exactly how they match. We can see some difference, but we wonder exactly how much difference there is. We enter the scores in a computer statistical program and push the correlation key and out comes a number. That number is a correlation coefficient which can range from minus one to plus and the closer it is to plus one, the better.

How is Reliability Related to Validity?

To be valid, a test must be reliable. You recall the listening test mentioned above in the discussion on reliability as correlation. My claim was that my test was a test of listening. In support of that claim, suppose that I gave reasons why my test is a listening test and not some other kind of test, for example a grammar test. What I am doing is making a claim for test validity. Validity has to do with the match between the stated purpose of a test and the actual function of the test, what the test actually tests. In other words, validity is an argument whereas reliability is a number. Validity is a claim and reliability is an indication of how adequately we are fulfilling the claim (Davies, 1990, p. 53). What a test is supposed to do is, according to Oller (1979, p. 4), also a question of validity, prompting Oller to conclude that validity can never exceed reliability. The relationship between reliability and validity is such that a research instrument can have test reliability without test validity, but it can never have test validity without test reliability (Weir, 1990, p. 33).

Types of Reliability

What types of reliability are there, when do we use which type, and how do we calculate the different types?

There are three types of reliability generally reported by researchers (Weir, 1990, p. 32). They are inter-rater reliability, internal consistency reliability, and parallel-forms reliability.

Inter-rater reliability is the measure of agreement among human test raters. Raters score the test (typically an interview or a composition) and their scores are correlated and the resulting correlation coefficient is taken as the reliability coefficient. Internal consistency reliability, on the other hand, uses statistics from the test such as the mean and standard deviation to calculate a reliability coefficient. The most common ways of calculating internal consistency reliability are the Kuder-Richardson formula 20 and Kuder-Richardson formula 21 and Cronbach's alpha formula. Parallel-forms reliability requires form A of a test and form B. While both forms must be different, they must be parallel or equivalent in every way. As a pretest at the beginning of the semester, half of your class receives form A and the other half receives form B. At the end of the semester as a final exam, your class takes the same test, but this time those who took form A are given form B. The two test forms are scored and the scores are correlated.

We now know how many types of reliability there are, but we do not know when to use which type. Seliger and Shohamy (1989, p. 185) say that which type of reliability to report depends on the type of data you are collecting. If you are collecting data which requires judgment calls such as an interview, the appropriate type of reliability to report would be inter-rater reliability. If you are using two forms of the same data collection instrument and you want to know if the forms are really equal, report parallel-forms reliability. If you are using an instrument which has many independent items and you want to know if all the items elicit the same information as would be the case if you were administering an achievement test or a questionnaire, report internal consistency reliability.

What is an Acceptable Reliability Coefficient?

For most educational research, Vierra & Pollock (1992, p. 62) say that .90 or better is very good, between .80 and .90 is acceptable, below .80 may be acceptable when the variable is known to be difficult to measure, and below .60 is not adequate. For inter-rater reliability, Allwright & Bailey (1991, p. 46) indicate that classroom researchers should strive for at least an .85 coefficient. A paper and pencil achievement test should be at least .90 (Davies, 1990, p. 22), but Reid (1990, p. 326) would allow a .70 coefficient for a difficult to measure trait such as learning styles.

Table 1
Acceptable reliability coefficients

Coefficient	Status
.90+	very good
.90 to .80	good
.80 to .70	acceptable if trait is difficult to measure
.70 or below	not acceptable

Why is it Necessary to Report Reliability?

Chaudron (1988) has stated that if classroom researchers create a research instrument to collect data, the first thing they have to demonstrate is the reliability of the categories they propose. He noted that researchers "have infrequently confirmed the reliability and validity of their observational measures" (1988, p. 23). Since then, Long (1990, p. 163) has echoed the call by noting that many second language acquisition studies are methodologically flawed by the lack of reliability data. There are at least four answers to the question, why is it necessary to report reliability? They are trustworthiness, generalizability, fairness, and revision.

1. The issue of trustworthiness is the degree of confidence one can have in the research (Henning, 1987, p. 74). There is simply no point in giving us results that we cannot trust (Davies, 1990, p. 23; Hatch & Lazaraton (1991, p. 529).
2. Generalizability is the degree to which we can use the results of research in situations other than the one in which it was performed. If findings are not reliable, there is no point in using them in other settings (Allwright & Bailey, 1991, p. 49).
3. Fairness. Many decisions affect the lives of students from passing or failing a course to who will be selected for an overseas study program. The more important the decision, the greater the reliability that must be demanded.
4. For a classroom researcher, instrument revision is one of the most important uses of reliability. Simply put, a low reliability coefficient indicates some sort of problem with the instrument (see Bachman, 1990, p. 160; Oller, 1979). A reliability study will not tell you what the problem is nor will it tell you how to solve the problem, but a low reliability coefficient acts as a red flag indicating danger.

To illustrate how reliability can be used to revise and improve an instrument, this paper now reports two studies dealing with the reliability of a learning style questionnaire on learner modalities. The statistics used to analyze the questionnaire are described and results are given which show low reliability especially in one portion of the questionnaire. The revision process is then described and the results of two follow-up studies are given. It is concluded that reliability is not only a necessary statistic to report, but helpful to the revision process.

Results of the first study

Thirty-three second-year university students participated in the first pilot study which was administered to 16 males and 17 females. Two students, one male and one female dropped out leaving a total of thirty-one students in the study.

The Learning Style Questionnaire (LSQ) from Hinkelman and Pysock, (1992) is titled, What is your learning style? and can be found in Appendix 1. Students were asked to complete each of twelve sentences by awarding a score of 3 points to the best answer, 2 points to their second best answer and 1 point to the least preferred answer. Scores can range from a minimum of twelve to a maximum of thirty-six points. The score at the bottom of the first column indicates the degree of preference for the visual modality, the score at the bottom of the middle column indicates the preference for the auditory modality and the score for the third column indicates the preference for the kinesthetic modality.

To estimate reliability, Cronbach alpha, a split-half procedure which measures internal consistency, was chosen because it is effective for weighted scores. The assumption of Cronbach alpha is normal distribution. For the formula and discussion of this statistic, see Brown (1995). The formula was manually put into a spread sheet computer program. Once the formula was verified using figures provided in Brown (1995), new data could be entered and the formula recalculated.

The reliability coefficients are given in Table 2 in terms of the visual (V), the auditory (A), and the kinesthetic (K) sections of the questionnaire. Since learning modalities are difficult to measure, a .76 reliability coefficient can be considered acceptable for the visual and kinesthetic sections, but the reliability coefficient of the auditory section is clearly inadequate.

Table 2
Reliability coefficients

	V	A	K
Cronbach a	.76	.40	.76

The Revision Process

Three strategies were identified which would increase the reliability of the LSQ instrument (Reid, 1990). These strategies are to increase item homogeneity, to increase the number of items, and to pair and correlate items.

Item Homogeneity. The key idea behind this strategy is that the more similar the items types are, the higher the reliability (Henning, 1987; Davies, 1990). Rewriting the items to make them more alike (homogeneous), makes them easier to understand which will, in turn, lead students to answer them in a more consistent way. In practice, item homogeneity means simplifying stems ("When I am bored, I . . . " was revised to "In class I sometimes . . .") and eliminating multiple examples ("In my free time I like to read, draw, watch TV" was revised to "In my free time I like to read").

Increasing the Number of Items. Increasing the number of items gives a wider range of scores which will increase reliability. More items will also give the researcher a chance to eliminate those items not working well and still leave enough items that are working well.The first LSQ instrument (Appendix 1) had 12 items. This was increased to 36 items in the second version (see Appendix 2).

Item Pairing. All items for the second version were written in pairs and then randomly placed. Thus, item 14a is paired with item item 33a and item 8a is paired with item 13a as shown in table 3.

Table 3.
Examples of revised paired items

Item				
14	I learn best	a_____in the library	b_____in the language lab	c_____outside
33	I learn best	a_____in class reading/writing	b_____in class discussions	c_____in class projects
8	I like	a_____watching animals	b_____listening to animals	c_____touching animals
13	At the zoo, I like	a_____looking at the	b_____hearing the animals sounds	c_____petting the animls

Results of the Second Study

A total of thirty-three students (19 men and 14 women) participated in the second pilot study. The LSQ instrument was the revised version two of the previous instrument (see Appendix 2). The revised instrument was thirty-six questions long and it was administered and scored in the same way as in the first pilot.

Cronbach alpha was used to determine reliability and the Pearson product moment correlation formula was used to correlate randomly paired items. The correlation results are shown in Appendix 4. The reliability coefficients results are given in Table 4. While the auditory coefficient is still lower than the visual and kinesthetic coefficients, version two can be considered an adequately reliable instrument although at 36 questions long, it may not be as convenient for classroom use as the shorter version.

Table 4
Reliability coefficients results for Version Two

	V	A	K
Cronbach a	.91	.76	.89

Discussion

Pairing and then correlating the paired items make it possible to identify which items to retain, which items to revise, and which items to eliminate. All item pairs within each area of the LSQ were correlated using the Pearson formula (StatView 4.2 for the Macintosh). Specifically, all items pairs within the visual section were correlated, all item pairs within the auditory section were correlated, and all item pairs within the kinesthetic section were correlated.

An item was eliminated if two of the three possible correlations were not statistically significant at $p < .05$. For example, (see Table 3) item 14a was correlated with item 33a, item 14b was correlated with item 33b, and item 14c was correlated with item 33c. The results of that correlation are listed in Appendix 4. Looking again at Table 3, the correlations of the visual, the auditory, and the kinesthetic parts of items 14 and 33 are not statistically significant. and both these items were rejected. The correlations of items 8 and 13, on the other hand, are statistically significant and were included in revised versions of the LSQ instrument. Using this criteria, twelve pairs were eliminated leaving six pairs or twelve questions in version three (see Appendix 3). The resulting reliability coefficients for version three were recalculated using the Cronbach alpha formula. The results were .86 for the visual section, .75 for the auditory section, and .86 for the kinesthetic section. These correlations can be taken as reliability coefficients and indicate that either the long version of the LSQ with 36 questions (version two in Appendix 2) or the short version with 12 questions (version three in Appendix 3) may confidently be used with student populations that are similar to the students described in this study.

Conclusion

This paper has shown the important role reliability can play in instrument revision. Revision is important because teacher-researchers create data elicitation instruments based on the best knowledge available to them at the time. The studies reviewed in this paper clearly show, however, that teacher-researcher intuition while necessary, is not sufficient. Teacher-researchers require feedback to guide the revision and improvement of their data elicitation forms. Reliability studies can provide the basis for that feedback.

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Appendix 1

What is your learning style? v1

Name ________________ Student Number ______________

There are 3 answers in each line. Write number "3" next to the answer you like best. Write number "2" next to the answer you like second best and write number "1" next to the answer you like third best.

1. I learn best by

a._____seeing something written   b._____listening   c._____doing it myself

2. To find a place, I want someone to

a._____draw me a map   b._____tell me in words   c._____take me there

3. In my free time, I like to

a._____read, draw, watch TV   b._____talk, listen to music   c._____play sports, drive, cook

4. I make a plan by

a._____writing notes   b._____talking to others   c._____just do it

5. When I want to talk to my friends, I like to

a._____write them a letter   b._____telephone   c._____visit them

6. I am good at

a._____drawing or math   b._____talking with people with machines   c._____working

7. I like to learn a computer by

a._____reading the manual   b._____having a teacher explain it   c._____doing it myself

8. After a good party, I want to

a._____look at photos of the party   b._____talk about the party   c._____have another party

9. I like

a._____color and design   b._____music, bird sounds   c._____moods, feelings

10. In any class, I like to

a._____use the textbook   b._____listen to the teacher   c._____do exercises

11. I like to learn English by

a._____watch English videos   b._____listening to a tape   c._____talking to a native speaker

12. In general, I am

a._____a watcher   b._____a listener   c._____a doer

TOTAL

a.__________   b.__________   c.__________

Appendix 2

What is your learning style? version two

Name ________________________________ Student Number ________________________________

There are 3 answers in each line. Write number "3" next to the answer you like best. Write number "2" next to the answer you like second best and write number "1" next to the answer you like third best.

1. I like to learn English by
a._____reading the textbook b._____talking in pairs c._____moving my body

2. I enjoy
a._____drawing b._____singing c._____dancing

3. When I am lost, I like to
a._____look at a map b._____ask someone directions c._____go with someone

4. I like to
a._____see the words b._____say the words c._____move my hands with the words

5. I like
a._____using textbooks b._____listening to tapes c._____doing dramas

6. I learn best when I
a._____see something b._____hear something c._____touch something

7. In my free time, I like to
a._____see videos b._____phone my friends c._____play sports

8. I like
a._____watching animals b._____listening to animals c._____touching animals

9. I plan something by
a._____making a list b._____discussing it c._____practicing it

10. In class at school, I like
a._____demonstrations b._____explanations c._____practice exercises

11. I learn best when I
a._____look at something b._____say something c._____touch something

12. To find a new place, I say
a._____"draw a map for me" b._____"tell me the way" c._____"take me there"

13. At the zoo, I like
a._____looking at the animals b._____hearing the animal sounds c._____petting the animals

14. I learn best
a._____in the library b._____in the language lab c._____outside

15. I like teachers who
a._____write clearly on the board b._____speak clearly c._____give worksheets to write on

16. I learn best by
a._____reading words b._____hearing words c._____acting with words

17. I like to
a._____write to friends b._____telephone friends c._____travel to friends

18. I like to contact friends by
a._____writing a letter b._____calling on the telephone c._____going to their house

19. To learn a computer, I first
a._____read a book about it b._____listen to someone c._____touch the keys

20. At a party I want to

a._____take pictures b._____sing songs c._____play games

21. I learn best by
a._____reading stories b._____hearing stories c._____acting stories

22. When I cook, first I usually
a._____look at a cookbook b._____have someone tell me c._____pick up the food

23. I like to
a._____look at the board b._____listen to the teacher c._____stand up and practice

24. I like teachers, who
a._____use pictures b._____let us discuss c._____make us move around

25. At a party, I want to
a._____look at photos b._____hear people tell stories c._____eat snacks

26. I make a plan by
a._____writing notes b._____listening to others c._____walking and thinking

27. When I am alone, I like to
a._____watch TV b._____listen to the radio c._____take a walk

28. When I am alone, I like to
a._____look at magazines b._____listen to music c._____play games

29. I enjoy
a._____painting b._____music c._____sports

30. In my free time, I like to
a._____draw something b._____talk to somebody c._____make something

31. In class, I sometimes
a._____look at a magazine b._____listen to my friends c._____play with my pencil

32. In class, I sometimes
a._____look out the window b._____talk to someone c._____move around in my chair

33. I learn best
a._____in class reading/writing b._____in class discussions c._____in class projects

34. I like to learn English by
a._____watching a video b._____listening to a tape c._____doing a role play

35. In class at school, I like
a._____colorful textbooks b._____interesting lectures c._____active lessons

36. I like
a._____movies b._____music c._____making things

TOTAL

a.______________ b.______________ c.______________

Appendix 3

What is your learning style? version three

Name ________________________________ Student Number ______________________

There are 3 answers in each line. Write number "3" next to the answer you like best. Write number "2" next to the answer you like second best and write number "1" next to the answer you like third best.

1. When I am lost, I like to
a._____look at a map b._____ask someone directions c._____go with someone

2. I like to
a._____see the words b._____say the words c._____move my hands with the words

3. I learn best when I
a._____see something b._____hear something c._____touch something

4. I like
a._____watching animals b._____listening to animals c._____touching animals

5. I learn best when I
a._____look at something b._____say something c._____touch something

6. To find a new place, I say
a._____"draw a map for me" b._____"tell me the way" c._____"take me there"

7. At the zoo, I like
a._____looking at the animals b._____hearing the animal sounds c._____petting the animals

8. I learn best by
a._____reading words b._____hearing words c._____acting with words

9. I like to
a._____write to friends b._____telephone friends c._____travel to friends

10. I like to contact friends by
a._____writing a letter b._____calling on the telephone c._____going to their house

11. I learn best by
a._____reading stories b._____hearing stories c._____acting stories

12. I like to
a._____look at the board b._____listen to the teacher practice c._____stand up and

TOTAL

a.______________ b.______________ c.______________

Appendix 4

Pair Correlation for LSQ v2

	Visual		Auditory		Kinesthetic	
pairs	r	p-value	r	p-value	r	p-value
16/21	.304	.0859	.357	.0406	.599	.0002
6/11	.555	.0006	.370	.0336	.696	<.0001
12/3	.110	.5437	.430	.0117	.382	.0277
*27/28	-.237	.1861	.258	.1484	-.251	.1605
*30/7	.171	.3436	-.707	.9691	.374	.0314
*26/9	.335	.0561	.143	.4299	.257	.1506
17/18	.827	<.0001	.387	.0253	.436	.0104
*2/29	.252	.1591	.363	0371	.082	.6512
*24/15	.268	.1329	.071	.6971	.247	.1675
*20/25	.039	.8289	-.298	.0927	-.309	.0802
*10/35	-.281	.1132	-.050	.7836	-.014	.9380
4/23	.534	.0011	.452	.0076	.520	.0016
8/13	.762	<.0001	.774	<.0001	.554	.0006
*22/19	.260	.1448	.406	.0183	.304	.0856
*31/32	-.138	.4478	.570	.0004	.041	.8202
*34/1	.259	.1460	-.094	.6052	.659	<.0001
*36/5	.023	.9009	.306	.0835	.579	.0003
*14/33	.221	.2177	-.344	.0493	.144	.4277

(Notes:) r = correlation * = pairs eliminated from version 2

Does It "Work"? Evaluating Language Learning Tasks

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Introduction

A quick look at the published work on materials evaluation (e.g., Cunninsgworth 1984; Breen and Candlin 1987; Skierso 1991; McDonough and Shaw 1993) reveals that it is almost entirely concerned with predictive evaluation. That is, it gives advice to teachers about how to conduct an evaluation of published materials in order to determine whether the materials are suitable for a given group of learners. This kind of evaluation is 'predictive' in the sense that it seeks to determine whether materials are likely to work in a specific teaching context. Valuable as this kind of evaluation is, it is not what I am concerned with here.

Instead, I want to consider how to carry out a retrospective evaluation of teaching materials. That is, I want to address how teachers can determine whether the materials they have actually used 'work.' It is my guess that although teachers frequently do ask themselves whether the materials they have selected or written 'work,' they generally answer this question impressionaistically in the light of their day-by-day experiences of using them. They rarely attempt a systematic and principled retrospective evaluation.

One obvious reason for this is the daunting nature of systematically evaluating the use of a complete set of materials (e.g., a textbook). This is an enormous undertaking, particularly if, as I shall shortly argue, the evaluation is to involve some kind of attempt to discover what it is the learners have learned as a result of using the materials. However, it may be easier to carry out retrospective evaluations at the micro-level by focussing on whether specific teaching tasks 'work.' My concern here, then, is with task evaluations.

What Does it Mean to Say a Task 'Works?'

A good starting point for a retrospective micro-evaluation is to ask what is means to say that a task has 'worked.' In fact, it can mean a number of rather different things. First, teachers might feel that a task has worked if they have evidence that the learners found it enjoyable and useful. The evidence might take the form of the teacher noticing that learners engage enthusiastically in performing the task or it might take the form of the students' responses to a post-task questionnaire designed to elicit how useful they felt it was. This kind of student-based evaluation is common and is the probably the basis for most teachers' judgements about the effectiveness of a task (see Murphy, 1993 for an example of a student-based task evaluation).

It is perfectly possible, however, that students enjoy doing a task and give it positive ratings in a questionnaire and yet fail to perform it successfully and/or learn nothing from it. It is also necessary, therefore, to consider two other types of retrospective evaluation; a response-based evaluation and a learning-based evaluation.

Richards, Platt and Weber (1985, p. 289) define a 'task' as 'an activity or action which is carried out as a result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response).' It follows that the effectiveness of a task might be determined by examining whether the 'response' of the learners is the same as the task was designed to bring about. This kind of evaluation constitutes a response-based evaluation.

A task may be more or less 'closed' or more or less 'open' according to the type of response asked for. In the case of tasks calling for verbal responses a fill-in-the-blanks grammar task can be considered 'closed' in the sense that there is only one set of right answers, while a free composition task can be considered 'open.' A non-verbal response may also be closed (e.g., a listening task that requires learners to fill in missing names on a map) or open (e.g. a listening task that asks learners to read a story and draw a picture of what they think the main character looks like). Now, it is obviously much easier to determine whether the 'response' learners make matches the one they were intended to make when the task is a closed one. Thus, teachers might feel the closed grammar and listening tasks outlined above have 'worked' if they observe that the students have filled in most of the blanks correctly and have been able to write down the missing names on the map. It is much more difficult to decide whether an open task has 'worked' as this requires teachers to identify criteria to evaluate whether the learners' responses are appropriate or not. For example, the students' response to the free writing task would need to be evaluated in terms of a set of criteria for effective writing (e.g., some kind of analytical marking scheme). The picture-drawing task would need to be evaluated in terms of the extent to which the students' pictures took account of the textual clues regarding the nature of the main character.

Thus, whereas the criteria for the evaluation of a 'closed' task are embedded within the task itself, the criteria required for evaluating an 'open' task are not. They are external to the task and, because they are usually not specified by the person who devised the task, they place a considerable burden on teachers' shoulders. This burden is notable because, in accordance with the dictums of communicative language teaching, many teachers are making greater use of 'open' tasks. It is my guess that many 'open' tasks are evaluated impressionistically. That is, teachers do not generally make explicit the criteria they are using to determine whether the learners' responses are effective or not.

Evaluating the effectiveness of a task in terms of whether the learners' responses are correct or appropriate constitutes what I call an internal evaluation. The evaluation is 'internal' in the sense that no attempt is made to ask whether the nature of the response required by the learner is a valid one: the evaluator simply assumes that the response required is valid and tries to establish whether the learners' actual response matches the response intended by the task.

Such an evaluation is, of course, limited because it is possible for a response to be correct or appropriate but still not be valid. It might be argued, for example, that a grammar task that requires learners to fill in the blanks with correct grammatical forms does nothing to promote the acquisition of these forms (see Krashen, 1982). It might also be argued that having students write free compositions does little to improve their writing skills. Furthermore, it is perfectly possible that a task fails to produce the intended response in learners and yet contributes to their development in some way (e.g., learners may fail to answer a set of comprehension questions on a reading passage correctly and yet learn a number of new words as a result of completing the task). In short, a task may be effective but invalid or it may be ineffective and yet valid.

A full evaluation of a task, therefore, calls for an external evaluation. It is possible to carry out an external evaluation theoretically (i.e., by determining whether the assumptions that task designers make when they design specific tasks are justified in the light on some theory of language acquisition or skill development). In this case, the evaluation is predictive in nature. To evaluate a task retrospectively calls for investigating whether a task actually results in any new language being learned or in the development of some skill. In other words, it requires teachers to determine empirically whether the assumptions about learning that task designers make when they design tasks are valid. This calls for a learning–based evaluation. It is, of course, noteasy to demonstrate that a task – whether 'closed' or 'open' – has contributed to language learning. One way might be to ask learners to note down what they have think they have learned as a result of completing a task (see Allwright, 1984 for discussion of 'uptake' as a measure of learning.)

To sum up, I have suggested that determining whether a task 'works' calls for different kinds of retrospective evaluations. A student–based evaluation provides information about how interesting and useful learners perceive a task to be. A response–based evaluation is internal in nature because it simply addresses the question 'Was the students' response the one intended by the designer of the task?' A learning–based evaluation is external in nature because it goes beyond the task itself by trying to determine whether the task actually contributed to the learners' second language proficiency.

The different kinds of evaluations – student–based, response–based and learner–based – call for different types of information and different instruments for collecting them. A full description of these information types and instruments is obviously needed but is not possible in this brief article.

Conclusion

The evaluation of language teaching materials has been primarily predictive in nature and has focussed on whole sets of materials. There is a need for more thought to be given to how teachers can evaluate the materials they use retrospectively on a day–by–day basis. I have suggested that this can be best carried out as a series of micro–evaluations based on the concept of 'task.' Such evaluations are likely to accord with teachers' own ideas of what evaluation entails.

Widdowson (1990) has argued the need for 'insider research,' by which he means that teachers should engage actively in trying out and evaluating pedagogic ideas in their own classrooms. Such 'action research,' he suggests, is essential to help teachers develop an increased awareness of the different factors that affect teaching and learning in classrooms. One way in which teachers can undertake 'insider research' is by conducting task evaluations.

Task evaluations, therefore, serve a double purpose. They help to determine whether particular tasks 'work' and, thereby, contribute to the refinement of the tasks for future use but, perhaps more importantly, they engage teachers as insider researchers and, thus, contribute to their on–going professional development.

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Communicative Oral Testing

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Introduction

To teachers, testing often seems like something to be left to the "experts" who write thick books full of incomprehensible terminology. In our classrooms, and with our students, however, we often wish for better measures of their performance: ones that seem more in line with what we do in our classrooms than what is available on the professional testing market or what we tend to create for our classes.

What to Test

The first step in any description of an L2 testing device is a statement of what constitutes Language. For testing concerns, making this statement is essential because before one can make a test, one needs to have clearly in mind what is to be tested (Heaton, 1988).

Statements of what Language is have greatly evolved in the last few decades. Part of this evolution has been the change to a view of Language as the exchange of information, but we wish to take this a step further: we define Language as the exchange and further creation of meaning between interlocutors in a communicative way (Johnson, et al., 1995). What this means is that when interlocutors communicate, they not only exchange information, but together they build a set of information that, being unlike any other set of information between any other set of interlocutors, is a creation of new information. This is in complete discord with some other definitions of language, namely as a syntactic system that can be taken apart and "known" or as the correct answer from a set of four choices. Our definition instead recognizes that Language is made up of systems, both linguistic (morpho-syntactic, phonological, etc.) and para-linguistic, and that the use of these systems is constrained by social, contextual, and numerous other factors.

Qualities Needed in a Test

Given the view of language described above, the qualities to look for in a test need to be defined. Wesche (1987) points out that a test needs to be, among other things, valid, pragmatic, focused on appropriateness and language in use, comprehensive of a variety of language functions, reliable, and feasible.

Combining Wesche's considerations with those above yields a long list of items to consider, so for reasons of space we will limit this discussion to the following: validity, reliability, schema-building, recognition of language components in scoring, and feedback.

Validity is often described in testing manuals as the single most important factor in testing, and indeed it is. There are many types of validity, but the one we are most concerned with for the purposes of this paper is construct validity. According to Heaton, "If a test has *construct validity* it is capable of measuring certain specific characteristics in accordance with a theory of language behavior and learning" (1988, p. 161). A test that is valid, then, can be said to assess what it claims to assess.

Discussions of validity are always accompanied by discussions of reliability, another of the most important factors in testing. Reliability has to do with the extent which a test is objective. If a test is completely reliable, then in theory, the same student taking the same test at the same time under the same conditions should score the same score. The reason validity and reliability are discussed together is because they seem to be inversely related: the more valid a test is, the less reliable it tends to be, and conversely, the more reliable a test is, the less valid it tends to be. Heaton (1988) points out, however, that in designing a test it is crucial to construct a test that is valid first and then to try to increase reliability—creating a reliable test and then trying to make it valid will not yield good results.

A third consideration that is not referred to nearly as often in testing literature is the importance of building schema before a test, both content and formal. Content schema is the background knowledge of a topic which the learner brings to a text with him or her, and has been discussed most in reference to L2 reading. The idea that in L2 teaching we need to help students build schema has been accepted for a decade, and it seems clear that the same should be true for testing: in not helping testees to build content schema, we risk testing them on what they know rather than on how successfully they manipulate language to exchange and create meaning.

Formal schema—the knowledge of the structure (in this case of a test) or of how to go about a task, can be just as important yet are often not considered. Again this poses a problem: if formal schema are not put in place beforehand, we risk testing not use of language, but testees' ability to figure out what is expected of them.

Another important factor in oral testing is the recognition of different components of language and the roles they play in communication. That is, we must recognize that the systems (linguistic and paralinguistic) of language can be teased apart to some degree for analysis; as well as recognizing that they are developed to different levels in different people. A test needs to distinguish where learners' strengths and weaknesses lie, especially since for teachers testing can be a teaching tool as well as an administrative tool.

Finally, the test needs to give testees useful feedback: it should describe a testee's level in each component, tell where strengths and weaknesses lie, and provide a basis for decisions about directions for future learning.

Norm-Referenced vs. Criterion-Referenced Tests

Most testing literature includes discussions of the differences between and uses of norm-referenced tests (NRTs) and criterion-referenced tests, so they will be discussed only briefly here (for more detailed discussion, see Brown, 1995 and others). A good example of NRTs and one that most of us are familiar with is the TOEFL. It can be administered easily to large groups, it is very reliable, and scoring involves a comparison between each testee and all of the others who have ever taken the test. This type of scoring, according to Wesche (1987), is less desirable when testing oral communication.

In our classrooms, we often use a different type of scoring for tests: criterion-referenced (CRTs). These kinds of tests are harder to administer to large groups and tend not to be as reliable; scoring involves setting a standard and comparing each testee to that standard independently of the other testees. If, for example, we teach our students a set of greetings, and then test them on their knowledge of those greetings, we compare each test to the standard of 100% learning of what was taught, regardless of how the other students have performed.

Professionally Marketed Tests

One NRT designed by Educational Testing Services as a test of oral skills is the SPEAK test. How well does it compare to the criteria set forth above? It is reliable, and although it is possibly a valid test of proficiency, is not a valid as a test of *communicative* proficiency—the only interaction involved is between the testee, a test booklet and cassette—communication strategies and knowledge of social constraints are not involved. Formal schema are not a problem for those who have taken practice tests or the real test at least once, but content schema are not built up at all from item to item. In marking the SPEAK test, scorers do refer to several components (Clankie, 1995) but the score given to testees does not reflect this breakdown.

There are also several oral communication tests available that involve criterion-referencing rather than norm-referencing. These include the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) oral interview and a variety of oral tests administered by University of Cambridge Local Examina[illegible]n Syndicate

(UCLES).

The ACTFL interview can also be assessed in terms of the criteria for testing described above. First, it is more valid as a test of oral communication than a test like the SPEAK test, because it involves interaction between interlocutors. However, one of the interlocutors is the tester, and the format is mostly question and answer. This, we feel, does not reflect a true-to-life pattern of interaction. As for reliability, the ACTFL interview enjoys quite a good rate, due mostly to painstaking care in training the testers. Schema present a problem, though: those who have not taken the test before do not have formal schema in place, and the probe part of the interview involves greatly varied (and sometimes bizarre) content. Scoring of the ACTFL interview involves placing students in one of several level bands (Omaggio, 1986; Nagata, 1995). Unfortunately, although the bands describe levels of ability in various sub-skills, the bands are not broken down into components, so that testers must give the same score for all components. As a result, feedback does not provide a description of testee strengths and weaknesses.

UCLES has developed a battery of tests for assessing oral skills, one example of which is the Cambridge Assessment of Spoken English (CASE). CASE consists of negotiation of a problem by testees, done first in pairs and then groups, or vice-versa. Scoring is done by means of a set of descriptor bands that have been broken down into several categories. Scores are assigned in each category and are then added for an overall score. As a test of communication CASE is highly valid, given the statement of Language above. UCLES as a professional testing organization, does its utmost to ensure high reliability rates. Again, for those who have taken the test at least once, formal schema are most likely in place, but no effort is made to build content schema before the task begins. As mentioned, scoring does include the use of a range of subskills or components, and so feedback does as well. As such, CASE fits fairly well our profile of a desirable test. Unfortunately, it is not available for classroom use.

Our Test Model

The test model proposed here fulfills, we hope, all the criteria for testing described above. A description of the test procedure follows. Each test, as described here, takes approximately twenty minutes.

In groups of three, students are given information sheets (see Appendix A—sample test materials) and presented with a problem to solve or a decision to make based on that information. First, however, they must complete an information gap task created by the existence of several blanks on each of their sheets. There are two kinds of gaps: those for which both of the other students can provide the missing information, and those for which only one of the others can provide the information. In this way, each testee is required to help in the exchange at least once, and then is provided with an opportunity to show willingness to provide information when not required to do so. Once all of the students have all of the information, the negotiation/decision-making part of the test starts. Students are told that they must come to a joint agreement, and discussion begins.

The procedure described above is, we feel, a valid test format given the definition of Language set out in the "What to Test" section above. In exchanging information and negotiating a decision based on that information, testees must construct meaning among themselves in order to complete the task. The reliability of this test, however, remains uncertain. It has not been piloted or subjected to statistical analysis; again, we note Heaton's (1988) statement that validity needs to be of higher concern than reliability. We also expect that scoring with the aid of well-defined descriptor bands such as we will propose directly increases reliability.

As mentioned, schema-building also needs to be of concern in testing, and we find that the model proposed here accomplishes this. Formal schema are addressed by means of a practice version of the test, done as an ungraded class exercise, with students working in the same group in which they will be taking the scored test. The practice test follows the same format and procedure, but uses a different set of information and requires a different decision be made. Content schema, including key vocabulary, are built through an unscored pre-test exercise (see Appendix A) in which each student prioritizes a list of factors to consider in the decision.

The scoring bands used in this test (see Appendix B—oral test descriptor bands) are based on those used in the Kanda English Proficiency Test (KEPT), now in use at Kanda University of International Studies, and include four separate categories. The number of categories used is to some degree arbitrary, and is one of the problems that arises in creating a scoring system that accounts for the conflicting interests of rigor and ease of use. While three of the four categories in this scheme focus on linguistic factors, the fourth describes interactive aspects that fall outside systems of lexis, grammar and phonology. This is very important if we are to recognize Language as Halliday (1985) puts it, as a "...meaning potential system which is negotiated in interaction with others." We need to include these non-formal skills in scoring because by using communication strategies effectively those with poor formal language skills may interact effectively with others.

The scoring scheme used in this test is also used to provide feedback to students (see Appendix C—student oral score report). Note that the descriptors have been re-cast to avoid applied-linguistics jargon. Again, receiving scores in several categories with clearly described behaviors, students can see where their strengths and weaknesses lie; not only linguistically but also in terms of interactional skill.

Conclusion

There are many more issues involved in testing than can be discussed in these few short pages, and this is especially true in the case of oral testing. The testing format suggested above is by no means a final solution to the problem of how to accurately test communicative ability; but it may serve as a useful addition to the battery of tests we, as teachers, have at our disposal.

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APPENDIX A—SAMPLE TEST MATERIALS

PRE-TEST EXERCISE

If you were choosing a place to study English in another country, what would be the most important things to consider in your decision? Look at the list below, and number the items in order of importance. Use "1" for the most important, and "7" for the least important.

_____Where the school is located
_____How much the school costs
_____How much it costs to live in that city
_____How much air fare is to that city
_____How many Japanese students the school has
_____What the weather is like in that city
_____Something else (what? _________________
____
_______________________________________)

TEACHER COPY

You are going to study English in North America for one year. Choose the school you will go to. You must all agree to go to the same school.

	UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH [USA]	UCLA (LOS ANGELES) [USA]	UNIVERSITY OF VANCOUVER [Canada]
COST	¥700,000 per year, plus books	¥680,000 per year, plus books	¥650,000 per year, plus books
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT ARE JAPANESE	9%	64%	32%
WEATHER	comfortable in Spring & Fall, hot in Summer, cold in Winter	mild in Winter, hot in Summer, comfortable in Spring & Fall	mild, but rainy in all four seasons
COST OF LIVING	not bad--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥40,000 per month	high--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥60,000 per month	not bad--a one bedroom apartment is about ¥50,000 per month
ROUND-TRIP AIR FARE	¥90,000	¥58,000	¥60,000

STUDENT 1

You are going to study English in North America for one year. Choose the school you will go to. You must all agree to go to the same school.

	UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH [USA]	UCLA (LOS ANGELES) [USA]	UNIVERSITY OF VANCOUVER [Canada]
COST	¥700,000 per year, plus books	¥680,000 per year, plus books	¥650,000 per year, plus books
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT ARE JAPANESE	9%	______	32%
WEATHER	comfortable in spring & fall, __________, cold in winter	mild in winter, hot in summer, comfortable in spring & fall	mild, but rainy in all four seasons
COST OF LIVING	not bad--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥40,000 per month	high--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥60,000 per month	not bad--a one bedroom apartment is about ¥______ per month
ROUND-TRIP AIR FARE	¥90,000	¥58,000	¥60,000

STUDENT 2

You are going to study English in North America for one year. Choose the school you will go to. You must all agree to go to the same school.

	UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH [USA]	UCLA (LOS ANGELES) [USA]	UNIVERSITY OF VANCOUVER [Canada]
COST	¥700,000 per year, plus books	¥680,000 per year, plus books	¥_______ per year, plus books
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT ARE JAPANESE	9%	64%	32%
WEATHER	comfortable in spring & fall, hot in summer, cold in winter	mild in winter, hot in summer, comfortable in spring and fall.	mild, but rainy in all four seasons
COST OF LIVING	not bad--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥40,000 per month	high--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥60,000 per month	not bad--a one bedroom apartment is about ¥_______ per month
ROUND-TRIP AIR FARE	¥_________	¥58,000	¥60,000

STUDENT 3

You are going to study English in North America for one year. Choose the school you will go to. You must all agree to go to the same school.

	UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH [USA]	UCLA (__________) [USA]	UNIVERSITY OF VANCOUVER [Canada]
COST	¥700,000 per year, plus books	¥680,000 per year, plus books	¥_______ per year, plus books
PERCENTAGE OF STUDENTS THAT ARE JAPANESE	9%	_____ %	32%
WEATHER	comfortable in spring & fall, hot in summer, cold in winter	mild in winter, hot in summer, comfortable in spring & fall	mild, but rainy in all four seasons
COST OF LIVING	not bad--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥40,000 per month	high--a one-bedroom apartment is about ¥60,000 per month	not bad--a one bedroom apartment is about ¥50,000 per month
ROUND-TRIP AIR FARE	¥90,000	¥58,000	¥60,000

APPENDIX B—ORAL TEST DESCRIPTOR BANDS

	Pronunciation/ Fluency	**Grammar**	**Vocabulary**	**Communicative/ Interactive Skills and Strategies**
5	Rarely mispronounces. Accurate use of l/r, b/v, th, f. Speech flow rarely interrupted by difficulty in selection.	Uses high level discourse structure. Occasional errors.	Wide range from text with appropriate use plus appropriate lexis from outside text.	Confident and natural, responsive to others, aware of turn-taking. Asks others to expand on views. Body language natural.
4	Overall accurate pronunciation L2 influence does not impede comprehension for NS. Occasional interruptions in fluency.	Full range of basic structures; mistakes do not interfere with communication.	Lexis from text sufficient for task. Usually appropriate usage. Some lexis from outside text.	Responds appropriately to others. Needs prompting only occasionally. Can change topic.
3	Pronunciation often faulty but intelligible. Speech flow hesitant, some paraphrasing.	Meaning expressed in accurate simple sentences. Complex grammar avoided.	Lexis from text usually adequate for task. A little lexis from outside text.	Responds to others, usually does not require prompting. Can communicate main ideas. Sometimes uses repair and clarification strategies.
2	Frequent errors in pronunciation, sometimes unintelligible utterances Overall comprehensible. Speech broken except for routine expressions.	Errors frequent but intelligible to NS accustomed to NNS patterns.	Lexis from text adequate for simple communication only.	Requires continued prompting, otherwise silent. Does not initiate interaction. Difficulty following shifts of topic.
1	Pronunciation largely unintelligible. Both inaccurate and inconsistent. Very long pauses in selection of items.	Fragmented phrases. Single words.	Little lexis retained from text. Inadequate for simple communication.	No interaction without direct prompting. Speech very hesitant, not associated with what others say.

APPENDIX C—STUDENT ORAL SCORE REPORT

	Pronunciation/ Fluency	Grammar	Vocabulary	Communicative/ Interactive Skills and Strategies.
5	You made almost no mistakes, even with l/r, h/v th or f. You almost never had to stop to think about what to say.	You made a few mistakes, but you were using varied and complicated grammar and phrasing.	You used a lot of the vocabulary from the information page, and also used a lot of other vocabulary that you know.	You spoke confidently and naturally. You responded to other people or asked them to say more, and showed you understood the social rules of conversation. Your body language was natural.
4	You have an accent, but a native speaker would have no problem understanding you. Sometimes you had to stop and think a little about what to say.	You used a lot of different grammatical structures, and your mistakes didn't cause communication problems.	You used the words from the information page correctly and also used some other words you know correctly.	You almost always talked even if no one asked you to, and you were able to follow changes in the conversation.
3	You made mistakes, but it wasn't a problem understanding you. You spoke a little slowly, and sometimes you had to try to say something again in a different way.	Your grammar was correct but you only used simple grammar. You didn't use complicated grammar.	You used the words from the information page, and also used some other words that you know.	Most of the time, you talked even if no one asked you to. You communicated the main ideas although sometimes you had to explain more carefully to make your ideas clear.
2	Sometimes your pronunciation was difficult to understand, but generally it was okay. You spoke very slowly (except for common phrases).	You made a lot of mistakes, but someone who is used to non-native speakers could understand you.	You used the words from the information page, but you didn't have enough vocabulary to express complicated ideas.	You often didn't speak until someone asked you to, and you didn't start the conversation. You didn't seem to always follow changes in the conversation.
1	Your pronunciation was very hard to understand. You paused too long to think about what to say.	You didn't use sentences—only phrases or words.	You didn't use the words from the information page. Your vocabulary seemed too small for communication.	You didn't try to speak unless someone asked you to. Often what you said wasn't related to what other people said.
your score				

The Evaluation of Gestures in Non-Verbal Communication

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Introduction

If it is accepted that non-verbal (NV) communication strategies are an important element of our social interactions (Birdwhistle 1970, 1974; Morsbach 1973; Rubin 1982; Pennycook 1985; Seward 1968), it follows that we should accept the need to either explicitly teach them, or attempt to raise the learners' consciousness of them (Al-shabbi 1993; Soudek and Soudek 1985). This done, we should also accept the need to either test the learners' knowledge of such strategies or to in some other way quantify their ability to manipulate them in their communicative interactions (O'Sullivan, 1995b)

To date there have been no widely accepted efforts made to do just this, though there are recent studies (Jungheim 1995; O'Sullivan 1995a, 1995b) in which descriptions are given of attempts to generate tests which focus on the topic of the testing of non-verbal strategies. Though developed independently the tests share many characteristics, which are described below. However, before looking at these tests it is first

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necessary to make clear what we mean when we are discussing the area of NV communication. In order to do this, the models presented by Morain (1987) and Pennycook (1985) will be outlined.

Descriptions of the NV Channel of Communication

The most obvious difficulty one encounters when describing the NV channel of communication is its sheer complexity. The first example, Morain's (1987, p. 119) is aclassification of what she saw as a simplified outline of "the non-verbal aspects of communication":

1. Body language: comprising movement, gesture, posture, facial expression, gaze, touch, and distancing.
2. Object language: including the use of signs, designs, realia, artifacts, clothing, and personal adornment to communicate with others.
3. Environmental language: made up of those aspects of colour, lighting, architecture, space, direction, and natural surroundings which speak to man about his nature.

Though 'simplified' to the extent that each part is presented in broad definition, with no attempt to describe elements such as gestures in detail, even to the casual observer the above model is extremely wide-ranging. In terms of the language classroom the detail entered into here makes it of little practical use. Even when we look at the first level, that of 'body language,' it becomes patently obvious that it would be a practical impossibility to try to teach, let alone test, all of the elements in a normal language learning/testing situation.

In contrast to Morain's description, Pennycook (1985) focuses on the area of body-language only, and seems to provide us with a more practically useable format. However, while this appears to neatly categorise the area it does little to unravel its complexity:

1. Kinesics: Body movements, both deliberate and subconscious.
2. Proxemics: Private/Public domain, space judgements.
3. Paraverbal features: Non-lexical aspects of speech communication.

As with the Morain model, Pennycook focuses on broad definitions of the elements of the three principal facets, again making the model extremely wide-ranging and of little pedagogic use as it stands. Thus, in order to more fully understand non-verbal communication (NVC), and by implication make it more 'useful' to the language teacher and learner, we must attempt to more adequately describe it.

There are two very important points that can be made, having given these descriptions even a brief examination. These are:

1) The area of NVC is wide-ranging, complex and, to date, relatively unexplored, and
2) when we talk about gestures, or 'body movements,' we are, in fact, focusing on a very narrow aspect of NVC.

Tests of NVC Ability

Jungheim's two pronged exploration of the subject saw him expand on Bachman's (1990) framework by adding what he describes as a "three-part nonverbal ability component" (Jungheim 1995, p. 150) comprising textual, sociolinguistic and strategic abilities. From this theoretical position he then proceeds to first outline his "Gestest" a 23-item test in which subjects were asked to respond to videotaped gestures — shown without sound — by correctly identifying their 'meaning' from a multiple-choice format. The test, which appears to have been methodically prepared, with numerous pilots and item description analysis used to come up with the final version employed in the study, generated impressive reliability statistics (he reports a Cronbach a coefficient of .75).

The second measure described by Jungheim was his attempt to use specially designed rating scales, which he called the NOVA Scales, to evaluate a learner's nonverbal strategic ability by enumerating their use of "head nods, gaze direction changes, and [hand] gestures" (Jungheim 1995, p. 157) in role play tasks which were videotaped and scored by trained raters.

O'Sullivan (1995a, 1995b) describes a study in which a similar test was created, though using just eight gestures, due to the effort to satisfy the cultural requirements of North American and British/Irish speakers of English. In attempting to look at the production and recognition of gestures this test consisted of two sections. In the first, the learners were asked to look at a gesture (embedded in a soundless videotaped scene performed by a team of native speakers of English (NSEs)— as opposed to Jungheim's (1995, p. 154) single North American female performing the gestures "while seated" — and then to identify its possible meaning from a multiple choice format, whose distracters were obtained from pilot test replies. In section two, the learners observed videos of interactions between NSEs — again without sound — these were cut just as a gesture was about to be made. The learners were then asked to perform a gesture which would 'fit' the cut-off point while transmitting a given meaning, this was given to them by means of a Japanese flash card. These performances were video taped and scored by trained raters. The small number of gestures, and the relatively small sample (n = 21) appear to have been among the factors which lead to the extremely low overall reliability scores observed (r = 0.423), though as can be seen below there were other difficulties.

Difficulties With the Tests

Both of the tests described above suffer from a number of serious drawbacks. For example, Jungheim's Gestest suffered from difficulties with the translation into Japanese of the intended meaning of gestures which had been originally written in English, as did O'Sullivan's test. The example mentioned by Jungheim (ibid., p. 157) was that of the expected response "I'm tired." intended to refer to "tired as in sleepy" being incorrectly translated as *tsukareta* , while the correct translation, *nemui*, was included as a distracter. Though the error was identified in time, the incident highlights the real difficulty of translating the intended meaning of a non-verbal cue from one culture into the written language of another.

In addition, O'Sullivan found that some of his raters accepted gestures that were seen as ambiguous by others, while Jungheim was forced to employ additional ratings when some gestures received widely differing scores — a likely indication that both tests suffered from this same malady. In terms of rater reliability there are two points to be made:

1) O'Sullivan's use of a vague concept of the 'acceptability' of gestures to the raters, by employing an holistic judgement appears to have been too subjective. This would certainly account for the poor inter-rater reliability obtained in his study.
2) Jungheim's NOVA scales, in offering just four levels of acceptability of an extremely limited number of very clearly observable items seems to offer a somehow naive or simplistic view of the situation. This is especially true when we consider the description of non-verbal channels of communication offered by Morain (1987) and that of body language from Pennycook (1985). The narrow bands described may also account for the high reliability scores he reported.

Some more fundamental problems become obvious when we consider the descriptions of NVC presented earlier. Though O'Sullivan was simply investigating the possibility of developing a test, Jungheim set out to develop a test which would act as a research tool to comprehensively examine the area. The small number of gestures either study identified are obviously not a representative sample of the elements of the descriptions offered by Morain and Pennycook, either in terms of the models as a whole or even of the single category of 'body movement' or 'gesture' and do not offer the examiner a sufficient basis on which a test could be drawn up even when all are included in every test — remembering that a smaller number of items on a test reduces its chances of generating acceptable reliability figures.

The method employed in both studies in presenting the gestures (using video without sound) cannot be seen as being authentic, when we consider that gestures require different degrees of required verbal and/or nonverbal input. By this it is meant that there are gestures which require; no spoken input, such as a victory sign, some degree of nonverbal input, such as the 'minimal responses' described by Zimmerman and West (1975, p. 108) an optional verbal input, such as a head shaking 'no,' or a combination of gestures/movements in a specific context to clarify the intent, for example a smile from a police officer when asking for your driving license does not necessarily mean that the officer is happy to see you.

Even where a gesture does not require verbal input, when it occurs it in some way changes the resulting message, for example either softening or intensifying it.

It is also clear that Jungheim's decision to use a seated gesticulator failed to take sufficient note of the interaction of different elements of NVC, remembering that the elements included in the descriptions outlined above are not likely to occur in isolation, but that there is a strong interaction between them. This seriously questions the validity of his method.

Observations and Discussion

That the literature has, to date, emphasized the culture specificity of the NV channel of communication is important to the EFL/ESL class in that it highlights two areas of concern to the language teacher and student. These are that we are on one hand failing to give our students the skills necessary to perform genuine communicative acts, while simultaneously ignoring an area of possible conflict in the language classroom.

Due to the focus of the typical language classroom there is a real possibility that the message transmitted through the verbal channel will be distorted because the accompanying non-verbal signals are misinterpreted or misunderstood, causing potential conflict both in the 'real' outside world and within the walls of the language classroom (see Al-shabbi, 1993).

However, even though the majority of the studies mentioned here are more than ten years old, and all, in one way or another either stressed the importance of NVC education or provided suggestions as to how it might be taught, the topic has rarely been included in an internationally published language text or teacher's manual. Difficulties, such as which elements of NVC to teach and of the fact that the culture specificity of gestures, makes including them in texts written for an international market all but impossible, contribute to this present situation. For similar reasons the creation of a widely acceptable test, certainly along the lines of those described above, appears to be fraught with apparently insurmountable difficulties.

Using the NV channel can be seen as a form of communication strategy. In the same way that repetition, pausing, and word coinage etc. allow the interlocutor to manipulate the communication system, non-verbal strategies allow us to transmit and interpret meaning. While some tests of spoken language (i.e., the UCLES batteries) contain instructions given to rater/interviewers which raise their awareness of the learner's inclusion of a number of communication strategies, this area has not been systematically explored for NV communicative ability. However, some awareness of the 'environmental language' is displayed in the instructions given to the instructors in relation to the physical organisation of the interview room (UCLES, 1988, p. 2-3).

Yet another reason for the neglect of this area may well be the success of Bachman's (1990) model of communicative language ability (CLA) in coming to dominate both language testing and research over the past few years. While it is extremely important for us to have a valid base on which to theoretically ground our research, and the model provides, in Bachman's (1990, p. 82) own words, "a guide, a pointer ... to chart directions for research and development in language testing," there is some difficulty in using it as a theoretical basis for evaluating a learner's communicative performance. This lies in the fact that in concentrating on the verbal side it does not concern itself with the evaluation/assessment of competence in the NV channel, an argument also employed by Jungheim (ibid. , p. 149-151). In describing his framework as a guide Bachman calls for further expansion of the model through empirical research, a movement which Jungheim has certainly begun for NVC competence, though it is clear that there is much to be done.

Though the possibility of developing tests which will indirectly test such competence is certainly appealing, it is as inappropriate to separate the non-verbal channel from its natural context of communication as it is to separate the verbal channel. Therefore, in as much as previous tests can be argued to lack validity for ignoring one important aspect of communication, such indirect tests will lack validity for the same reason. In addition, it is also clear that the 'meaning' applied to any gesture will rely on the context in which that gesture is produced. It is important to realise, therefore, that to remove a gesture from its natural environment is to remove from it all meaning.

It is therefore apparent that language researchers/testers should continue to explore the whole area of non verbal communication. In addition to descriptions such as that offered by Pennycook we need to carefully study the individual elements of kinesics, proxemics, and paraverbal features so that we more fully understand their interactions, both among themselves and within the context any accompanying verbal or non-verbal communicative interaction.

At this point in time we simply do not know enough about the area to engage in test writing. It is therefore important to proceed with coordinated experimentation in order to create a validated working extension to the Bachman model. This achieved, it will be possible for researchers to examine the feasibility of including measurement of the NVC ability in existing tests of communicative competence. The conclusion that we should best proceed down this path is inevitable when we review the experience gained in failing to create a useable test of a learner's NVC ability when this ability is examined in isolation.

It is clear from the above discussion above that this writer has grave doubts about both his own efforts and those of Jungheim to write a reliable and valid test of a learner's NV competence. Additionally, there must remain a serious doubt whether such a test could or should be developed, even for research purposes, as the results generated tell us little or nothing of a learner's ability to accurately (or adequately?) interpret or produce signals on the non-verbal channel while engaged in a meaningful interaction.

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Our Experiments in Oral Communication Tests

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OCA/OCB/OCC have been introduced into English lessons as part of the new English curriculum. One of the problems for English teachers is how to proceed with regular oral communication lessons with a textbook. Another is how to evaluate listening ability, speaking ability and oral communication ability. It seems that most of the teachers who are involved in these new subjects make a listening test in cooperation with AETs. Listening tests are likely to be accepted in some schools, partly because they have high administerability, and partly because they are a component of entrance examinations in some universities. Few teachers are trying to introduce speaking tests because they have problems of administration and objectivity. Our experiments in conducting speaking tests are just a small step toward the evaluation of oral communication in the present situation.

Subject

Forty first-year students of the English Course of Nakano-Nishi SHS participated in the

Speaking Test. They received one 50-min oral communication lesson per week which was team-taught with our AET from Canada, Kari McAlpine (She completed her teaching job in Japan in July, 1995. Now we have a new AET from Canada, David Kootnikoff). The textbook was Elementary LL English Course published by Taishukan. The usual lesson was made up of two parts. One part was for oral communication based on the textbook. The other part was for developing listening ability and global awareness by watching excerpts from BS news which I selected and recorded for the lesson. I have been trying to incorporate related reading and writing activities which are based on global education. The tests were conducted in June, November, and February, as a component of the three term-end examinations of the 1994 school-year.

Method

We studied various oral ability testings such as RAS (Royal Society of Arts) test, the ACTFL guidelines, the ILR (Interagency Language Roundtable) proficiency ratings, the ARELS (Association of Recognised English Language Schools) examinations, the BSM (Bilingual Syntax Measure), the Ilyan Oral Interview, the FSI oral rating system, the Clark four-scale system, the Jakobovitz-Gordon and Bartz rating system, and some other oral testings (Valette, 1977; Oller, 1979; Madsen, 1983; Byrne, 1986; Hughs, 1989; Heaton, 1990).

The First Oral Communication Test

The first oral communication test as the first-term examination was composed of two parts: 'Interpreter' and 'Talking' (see Appendix A).

The first part 'Interpreter' took one minute. Eighteen questions taken from the textbook were written on cards which were placed face-down on a table. Each student drew two questions, and handed one to the AET, one to the JTE. The student then acted as an interpreter between the AET and the JTE by translating the English question and its Japanese answer, and the Japanese question and its English answer. Grammar and accuracy were evaluated. The whole performance was recorded on video for later evaluation. In this part, accuracy was evaluated on the condition that one point was reduced for each mistake. The full mark of the first part was ten points.

The second part was 'Talking.' Students read a list of four topics and chose one. The four topics they could choose were: 1) Describe your morning routine, 2) Tell me about your family, 3) Tell me about your school life, and 4) Free choice. Students were to speak for two minutes, saying as much as possible. Some responses and questions from the AET were allowed during 'Talking'. According to our rating system, six things were evaluated: 1) the amount of information related (= the number of the sentences), 2) comprehensibility, 3) effort to communicate, 4) accent/pronunciation, 5) fluency, and 6) spontaneity. Students knew the process and evaluation scheme, but not the question, in advance. The whole performance was video recorded for later evaluation. The full mark of the second part was twenty-five points.

The AET and the JTE evaluated respectively, awarding thirty-five points maximum each for the whole test. These scores were totaled, for a maximum of seventy points then statistically converted to a ten-point scale in accordance with our school's evaluation system. We got 0.802 ($p<.001$) as inter-rater reliability.

The Second Oral Communication Test

The second oral communication test as the second term examination was composed of two parts: 'Appropriate Responses' and 'Free Speaking' (see Appendix B).

In the first part 'Appropriate Responses', students heard fourteen comments and responded to each comment in approximately fifteen seconds. Students were told in advance that they were supposed to give a natural answer and try to communicate meaning, and that they did not have to worry about grammar. The fourteen comments were picked out from their textbook. For example, students might hear a comment such as "Hi! I haven't seen you for a long time!" They might respond to it such as "Yes, it's been a long time." or "Hi, how are you?" The whole response was tape recorded in the LL room for later evaluation. A five-point scale was used to evaluate their performance, giving five points for each response. The full mark of the first part was seventy points.

In the second part 'Free Speaking', students were supposed to choose one topic and speak for one minute. They learned in the lesson about many global and environmental issues, based on the perspectives of global education. There were a lot of global issues we picked out: tobacco and second-hand smoke, The United Nations' peace keeping operation in Rwanda, nuclear energy, *waribashi*, world hunger, nuclear inspection in North Korea, trade friction between the USA and Japan, deforestation in Brazil and in other countries, and so forth. Students could talk about any other global issue other than the issues mentioned above if they were as an individual global citizen. According to our rating system, five things were evaluated: 1) length, 2) efforts to communicate, 3) amount of information, 4) level of English, and 5) understandability (= whether the judge can understand what issue each student is talking about). The whole response was tape recorded in the LL room for later evaluation. The full mark was thirty points.

The AET and the JTE evaluated respectively, awarding one hundred points maximum each for the whole test. These scores were totaled, for a maximum of two hundred points, then statistically converted to a ten-point scale in accordance with our school's evaluation system. We got 0.971 (p<.001) as inter-rater reliability.

The Third Oral Communication Test

The third oral communication test as the third term examination was composed of two parts: 'Speaking About the Cartoon' and 'Speaking About One Topic You Learned This Year' (see Appendix C).

In the first part, students were given one of four cartoons. They had two minutes to prepare. They had one minute to speak about the cartoon. They were supposed to refer to who, where, when, what, and how in their story, if it was necessary. 'What' was divided into four subcategories for us to put an emphasis on it: what he/she was doing, what he/she was thinking, what he/she was saying, and what he/she was feeling. According to each frame, their story was evaluated, in addition to the overall perspective of their story telling. The full mark of this part was twenty-eight points. The four cartoons we used for this part were originally for the pre-first grade test of the STEP. The whole performance was tape recorded for later evaluation.

In the second part, students were supposed to speak for one minute about what they learned this year. They could choose any topic that was discussed this year, and talk about it in detail, telling what they learned about that topic. They learned in the lesson about a lot of global issues, based on the perspectives of global education, as mentioned in the second oral communication test. In advance, students were given the grading frame of four things: 1) amount of information, 2) length of time talking, 3) whether it sounds like the student understands the topic, and 4) appropriateness of vocabulary. In addition, they were told that grammar was not graded so precisely, and that successful communication of ideas and their understanding of the particular global issue were important. We thought it did not matter if the issue the student picked out was the same as the one he/she chose in the second term oral communication test because it might lead to the better understanding of the issue and the more empowered communication of ideas. The full mark of this part was twenty-two. The whole performance was also tape recorded for later evaluation.

The AET and the JTE evaluated respectively, awarding one fifty points maximum each for the whole test. These scores were totaled, for a maximum of one hundred points, then statistically converted to a ten-point scale in accordance with our school's evaluation system. We got 0.879 (p<.001) as inter-rater reliability.

Results and Discussions

The First Oral Communication Test

Being time-consuming was one disadvantage. It took about four minutes for each student including change time, which amounted to one hundred and sixty minutes(= almost three hours). In addition, we needed almost the same amount of time for evaluation because we watched the whole performance on the video and counted the sentences for 'the amount of information related' item. Another disadvantage was that items for evaluation might overlap with each other. Rearrangement and integration was needed in selecting the evaluation items.

One of the advantages was that we could get the whole performance of the students by recording on the video. Another advantage was that by putting an emphasis on the amount of information related, we could approach one of the purposes of oral communication and have a highly objective evaluation in addition to the fact that JTE and AET evaluated respectively and got the total score, although we might not be free from some subjectivity.

Inter-rater reliability was 0.802 (p<.001), which was statistically significant. There was no significant difference between the two raters.

The Second Oral Communication Test

One of the disadvantages was that there was less naturalness in communication in the 'Appropriate Responses' because the student had no partner in the presence of him/her to talk with, so that the student had no chance to see and use any nonverbal communication such as facial expression, gesture, and eye contact. Another disadvantage was that 'Free Speaking' might be categorized into speech as one-way communication. It was not two-way communication, nor reciprocal. Thus, in this case, only one aspect of oral communication was evaluated. Reciprocity as the other aspect of oral communication was not evaluated.

The problem of being time—consuming was, to some degree, solved, because students were supposed to tape record their own performance according to the directions recorded in the tape in the limited time. It took about five minutes for each student. So the time needed to administer the second oral communication test was about five minutes. It amounted to about two hundred minutes in total for us to evaluate. But it was not so long or a laborious time. This was the first advantage in that the test had enough administerability. The second advantage was that we could have enough objectivity of evaluation as we used a five-point scale for the first part and five things to evaluate students' performance for the second part such as length, efforts to communicate, amount of information, level of English, understandability. In addition, the JTE and AET evaluated the same outputs respectively and got the total score. The third advantage was that appropriateness of verbal communication could be evaluated, though the time for the student to respond was limited and there was no non-verbal communication. The fourth advantage was that the student had an opportunity to speak about global issues, by expressing facts and their own opinions based on their learning and thinking in the lessons.

Inter-rater reliability was 0.971 (p<.001), which was statistically significant. There was no significant difference between the two raters.

The Third Oral Communication Test

One of the disadvantages was that both in the 'Speaking About the Cartoon' and in 'Free Speaking' the student had no partner to talk with in the presence of him/her, so that the student had no chance to see and use any non-verbal communication such as facial expression, gesture, and eye contact. Another disadvantage was that 'Speaking About the Cartoon' might be one-way communication. It was not two-way communication, nor reciprocal. Thus, in this case, only one aspect of oral communication was evaluated. Reciprocity or interaction as the other aspect of oral communication was not evaluated.

The problem of being time-consuming was, solved in this test, too, because students were supposed to tape record their own performance in the limited time. The time needed to administer the third oral communication test was about four minutes including the time for preparing how to construct a story. The student really spoke for two minutes out of four minutes in total. It amounted to about eighty minutes in total for us to evaluate. It was not so long or a laborious time. This was the first advantage in that the test had enough administerability. The second advantage was that we could have enough objectivity of evaluation as we gave points according to who, where, and what, for the first part, and we had four things to evaluate students' performance for the second part such as the amount of information, length, understandability, appropriateness of vocabulary. In addition, JTE and AET evaluated the same outputs respectively and got the total score. The third advantage was that appropriateness of verbal communication could be evaluated, though there was no nonverbal communication. The fourth advantage was that the student had an opportunity to speak about global issues, by expressing facts and their own opinions based on their learning and thinking in the lessons.

Inter-rater reliability was 0.879(p<.001), which was statistically significant. There was no significant difference between the two raters.

Conclusion

We have experienced three different types of oral communication tests. In the first test, we had a problem with the administration of the test, which we improved in the second test and the third test. But, instead of solving the problem of administration, we had the problem of unnaturalness of communication by tape recording their performances in that they had no real communication partner. Besides, in the speech type test and the story-telling type test, their performances had no reciprocity of communication as we had no device to insert our responses and questions to make them interactive and reciprocal. Thus, tape recording is a powerful way to solve the problem of administerability, but it can be a hindrance to reduce naturalness and reciprocity of communication.

We think that we cleared the problem of objectivity in evaluating students' performances from the first test in that we set some items necessary for analytic evaluation, and we had an appropriate inter-rater reliability. But we can safely say that we reduced naturalness and reciprocity as we tried to get objectivity by video recording and tape recording for the later analytic evaluation.

We may be able to improve these contradictory problems by adopting an interview type of oral communication test with an immediate evaluation whether it is holistic or analytic if we get used to evaluating students' performances. It is just an alternative way, so we would like to explore more alternatives for evaluating students' oral communication proficiency.

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CLASS (1-8), JUNE 1994 Name:______________
SPEAKING TEST EVALUATION

Part One
GRAMMAR AND ACCURACY (one point off for each mistake)

#1 score: 5 4 3 2 1

#2 score: 5 4 3 2 1

Part Two
AMOUNT OF INFORMATION RELATED (number of pieces of information)

0	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	>20

COMPREHENSIBILITY (examiner understands:)

none	little	most	all

EFFORT TO COMMUNICATE

none/ silence	little	some gestures/ examples	everything possible

ACCENT/PRONUNCIATION

foreign	so-so	natural

FLUENCY

halting, jerky	some hesitation	no hesitation

SPONTANEITY (ability to respond to questions and interjections)

never	unnatural seldom	so-so sometimes	natural always

CLASS (1-8), JUNE 1994 Name:______________
SPEAKING TEST EVALUATION

Part One
GRAMMAR AND ACCURACY (one point off for each mistake)

#1 score: 5 4 3 2 1

#2 score: 5 4 3 2 1

Part Two
AMOUNT OF INFORMATION RELATED (number of pieces of information)

	0	0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	>20
Our score→	0	4	6	8	10	12

COMPREHENSIBILITY (examiner understands:)

none	little	most	all
0	1	2	3

EFFORT TO COMMUNICATE

none/ silence	little	some gestures/ examples	everything possible
0	1	2	3

ACCENT/PRONUNCIATION

foreign	so-so	natural
0	1	2

FLUENCY

halting, jerky	some hesitation	no hesitation
0	1	2

SPONTANEITY (ability to respond to questions and interjections)

never	unnatural seldom	so-so sometimes	natural always
0	1	2	3

CLASS (1-8), November 1994 Name:_______________

SPEAKING TEST EVALUATION

Part One

Appropriate Responses

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14

(5 point-scale)

Appropriate Responses Subtotal

70

Par Two

Free Speaking

how long?

< 30 sec.	< 45 sec.	< 60sec.
2	4	6

effort

little	good	great
2	4	6

quality

- amount of information

little	some	lots
2	4	6

- level of English

easy	medium	advanced
2	4	6

do I understand?

none	most	all
2	4	6

Free Speaking Subtotal

30

TOTAL

100

PART 1

	Frame One	Two	Three	Four	
Who?					
Where?					
What?					
doing					
feeling					
thinking					
saying					
When?					
How?					
	6	6	6	6	24

overall:		
do I know which cartoon was being described?	0	1
what happened before the cartoon?	0	1
what might happen next in the cartoon?	0	1
subjective mark, for exceptional work.	0	1

PART 1 TOTAL: ____ 28

PART 2

	amount of information
1 2 3 4 5 6 7	points
15 30 45 60	seconds
1 2 3 4	points
zero little ok good great	student understanding
0 2 4 6 7	points
	appropriate vocabulary words
1 2 3 4	points

PART 2 TOTAL: ____ 22

TEST TOTAL: ____ 50

Simulations: A Tool for Testing "Virtual Reality" in the Language Classroom

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Tokyo Foreign Language Business Academy

Introduction

Over the past two decades, a variety of non-traditional, humanistic teaching methods (e.g., Total Physical Response, the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach, Community Language Learning, etc.) have been introduced to Japan in the hope that students will learn to speak English more fluently in their quest to the promise land of language mastery. Coupled with the ushering in of these methods, a new and greater emphasis on testing has emerged to the foreground.

Yet while many skills can be assessed using pencil-and-paper tests, oral proficiency "is widely regarded as the most challenging of all language exams to prepare, administer, and score" (Madsen, 1983, p. 147). Creating standard criteria of assessment, solving problems of administration, designing test items that resemble tasks in normal language use, and testing the complex and interlocking nature of language *and* skills in content-based courses are only a few of the logistic hurdles teachers must surmount in creating a sound testing instrument (Hughes, 1989; Littlejohn, 1990; McClean, 1995).

In Japan, the result has been that many teachers have resigned themselves to giving written tests instead; however, the concerns of creating a more enriched communicative environment for students and then assessing their language proficiency have led some to shift their attention to the use of simulations as a means of testing the language skill in action.

Simulations

The most common view of simulations is that they provide a way of creating a rich communicative environment (a representation of reality) where students actively become a part of some real-world system and function according to predetermined roles as members of that group. More important, however, is the notion that a simulation *becomes* reality and the "feeling of representivity fades" (Crookall & Oxford, 1990, p. 15), so much so that the world *outside* the simulation becomes, paradoxically, imaginary (see Black, 1995; Jones, 1982, 1985, 1987; Taylor & Walford, 1978, for a more detailed explanation of the mechanics of simulations).

The innate benefits of simulations include: (a) fulfill students' need for realism—a desire to "relate to life 'out there' beyond the classroom's box-like walls" (McArthur, 1983, p. 101); (b) increase student (and teacher) motivation, especially for those in EFL situations who might see English as a deferred need at best (Jones, 1982; Stern, 1980); (c) dismantle the normal teacher-student relationship so that students take control of their own destiny within the simulation, leading towards "declassrooming" the classroom (Sharrock & Watson, 1985); (d) help the learner confront and identify with the target culture (Oxford & Crookall, 1990); (e) reduce anxiety levels which is essential to language development (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; Krashen, 1982); and (f) allow teachers to monitor the participants progress unobtrusively.

A Link Between Simulations and Language Assessment

As part of this movement, Littlejohn (1990, p. 125) suggests that "the use of simulations as a testing device is . . . an important development since it should be possible to replicate the situations in which learners will have to use the language." He also feels that this kind of replication "allows us to view not only the language product but also the process by which that language emerged" (ibid., p. 125). Whereas standardized methods give us insight on how the student might do in a real setting, "simulations will show us how the student actually performs" (ibid., p. 128; italics, the author's).

Let's Do Business: A Simulation Model for ESP Classes

Overview. To bridge this gap between simulations and testing, I have developed a task-based model at Tokyo Foreign Language Business Academy as part of an ongoing research project to evaluate the effects of simulation techniques in ESP classes, taking in account the need and desire to measure language proficiency (in this case, business English) at the intermediate level.

Design. Students are required to participate in a business simulation called "Let's Do Business" as part of the final evaluation near the end of the second year. This simulation deals with the rise of a travel agency called Fly Company from its inception through the research and development of a new sales promotion over a six-month period (which actually takes place during four consecutive class periods of 90 minutes each). I allocate each student the role of office manager, sales representative, or office clerk, and they are required to put into full use the language, behavioral, and business skills they have acquired during the past two years. In this case, I divide students into four branch offices of the company that are supposedly located in cities throughout Japan by partitioning the room into four sections, each equipped with a computer and printer, table and chairs, white board, phone, calculator, and access to a fax machine.

I make elaborate preparations to fulfill, what Jones (1982, pp. 4-5) terms, the three essential elements of simulations: (a) *Reality of function*: participants are assigned roles and are told they must fully accept them both mentally and behaviorally as if they were actually those people; (b) *Simulated environment*: a realistic setting constructed to enhance role-acceptance by utilizing a variety of realia, e.g., in this case, specially printed business cards, time cards, name tags, letterhead, technical support including computers and a fax machine, and memorandums; and (c) *Structure*: the whole action is built around a set of problems or tasks—not invented by the participants but rather evolve as the action progresses.

The groups are asked in a memorandum from the company president, William Johnson, to devise a new marketing strategy for domestic travel tours in Japan based on the results of a comprehensive survey of Japanese consumers' tastes and preferences. After analyzing the data, participants at each branch discuss their target market, decide how they are going to promote their services (e.g., television or radio spot, newspaper advertisement, direct mail, fliers, etc.), communicate their ideas and progress with the other branches by fax, phone, or mail, and then write and submit a proposal to the president.

In the end, our main goal is to provide some measure of both the *process* (how they approached the task orally in English by reviewing, organizing and weighing alternatives, deliberating over the information available to them, etc.) and the *product* (the proposal they draft demonstrating their English writing, computer, and reading skills).

Measuring the *Process*: Performance Checklists, Recordings, and Debriefing

The most challenging step is to evaluate the *process*. Three techniques that work well in tandem include a student-generated checklist, video or audio recordings, and a debriefing session.

1. *Job appraisal checklist.* One useful assessment tool I use is a student-created job appraisal checklist (see Appendix A, for one example) that, in reality, serves as a prop used by employees within this simulation as a way of measuring performance. Participants fill out this checklist based on whether they feel they fulfilled the duties as outlined in their job descriptions. The advantages of utilizing such a discovery approach are: (a) it empowers the participants with the know-how to evaluate their strengths and weaknesses without the constant feedback from an external evaluator; (b) its application is not limited to the classroom, but can be used later on the job; and (c) it satisfies the students' belief that their work should be fairly judged based on a system they clearly understand rather than be graded, in one of my student's opinion, "by a subjective scale created at the whims of the teacher."

Because I feel participant-reported responses often lack impartiality, I spend time training students how to be more objective by putting them in charge of writing the checklist as part of the regular coursework and then having them view past students on video engaged in similar business tasks and identifying positive models of the skills they want to acquire. Then, they practice evaluating each other in short role plays that resemble situations found in the simulation. At the same time, I take notes, record my own evaluations, and later discuss how my ratings coincide with those the students wrote down. My feedback at this point reinforces in their minds the validity and reliability of their own marks.

At the close of the simulation, the regional manager asks each participant to complete the job appraisal checklist before a year-end performance interview. The purpose of the interview, they are told, is to review their progress for possible promotion and pay raise in the near future. At this point, the simulation ends.

2. *Videotaping or tape recording*. Recording simulations can serve as a powerful tool for encouraging self-correction as well as student and/or teacher-initiated feedback. First, I try to position the camera so it will blend in with the surroundings without inhibiting students from assuming their roles in a more natural setting. I make sure the camera has become a regular fixture of the classroom weeks before (or months through repeated use) I carry out the simulation. By that time, students have accepted its presence and are not aware of whether it is rolling or not. Also, because four different meetings are going on simultaneously, I rotate the camera among groups to ensure that everyone appears on the video.

Furthermore, because tape recorders are always easier to come by and require less supervision, I set up a recorder in each office to tape the group's discussions. I connect the machine to a long extension cord and have the play button always on, so that by just plugging in the cord from outside their office, I can activate the recorder without participants conscious of when it is going or not.

3. *Debriefing*. The ultimate success of this simulation hinges on the efficacy of a wrap-up or debriefing session (together with the self-evaluation checklist and recordings) where students and the controller can openly discuss behaviors, outcomes, general language difficulties, and the contextual appropriateness of their language discourse. Because I, as the controller, do not take part in the simulation, I am able to look in as an observer without inhibiting students from assuming their roles.

Although there are several different approaches to debriefing (see Bullard, 1992), I hold a two-hour session the next class period, giving me time to reflect back on the simulation and organize my comments regarding students' behavioral or linguistic errors that were most apparent—and giving students a needed respite from such an intensive experience. Furthermore, as Bullard puts it, "the teacher has the chance to analyze the errors and to develop strategies for dealing with them at leisure rather than having to operate on the spur of the moment" (p. 64). Pedagogically speaking, this break has allowed me to view or listen to the tapes, record my observations, and prepare follow-up classroom lessons in the form of short role plays to reinforce areas that need improvement.

One simple technique for using the recordings in the debriefing is to write a checklist of listening or observation tasks. For example, I give students a checklist of the expressions studied in class for asking and expressing opinions in business settings, ask the students to watch the video, and check off the ones they hear, or see (in the case of certain non-verbal communication, e.g., gestures, facial expressions, paralanguage, etc.). Then, we come up with a group impression of how well students did.

Figure 1. Observation Task Sheet

1. Asking Opinions:	What do you thin about...? What's your opinion on...? ______
2. Expressing Opinions:	If you ask me,... In my opinion,... ______
3. Agreeing:	You're eaxctly right. Yeah. That's how I feel! I agree. ______
4. Disagreeing:	I don't see it that way. I don't agree. I see what you're saying, but . . . ______

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As the debriefing continues, I ask the participants to look at the remarks they made on the job appraisal form and critique their performance accordingly, checking to see if their own assessments concur with what they view on tape.

Measuring the *Product*: The Proposal

The second part of the evaluation deals with the *product*: the written proposal. I assign grades by looking at several specific criteria: (a) layout of the proposal (introduction, rationale, design, etc.), (b) mechanics (punctuation, spelling, and capitalization as studied in class), (c), content (organization, depth and breadth of arguments, and presentation of ideas), and (d) language usage (business terminology). I collect these proposals at the end of the simulation, and then score and return them. Each member of the group receives the same grade.

The Final Assessment: *Process* and *Product*

Ultimately, I meet with the participants individually to discuss comments and ratings on the checklist and to look over a copy of their proposal. We compare the results, and I give a final grade for the whole simulation project based on: (a) the student's own rating, 50%, (b) my assessment, 25%, and (c) the written proposal, 25%.

Study Design and Results

To determine both the effectiveness of the simulation and the value of the assessment tools used as viewed *by* the participants, I administered a short, written questionnaire comprised of four open-ended questions to 15 students in Japanese (to elicit more detailed comments), and these responses were then translated into English. [Those responses of particular interest have been cited here.]

The first question asked students to compare this simulation with other language activities in their other classes (e.g., dictation, skits, pair work, oral interviews, written tests, etc.). Eleven of the 15 students (S) regarded this technique more productive than other exercises they had experienced before:

S3: It [the simulation] was fun because the students were in control of the business rather than the teacher telling us what we should do next.
S5: It was a useful experience because the parts of the simulation didn't come straight out of a textbook.
S7: This activity combined what we practiced all year and what we will later need on the job.

The second question asked students whether they felt they had ample opportunities within the simulation to practice the skills studied in class:

S2: I like it because the phone conversations were not scripted by the teacher, but were created by the students out of a real need to communicate.
S11: Each thing we did was related to the next, so I had the chance to try many things at once.
S15: It simulated the pressures of the real thing and allowed me to see whether I had mastered my English or not.

The third question focused on whether the skills-assessment methods (checklist, videotaping, debriefing session, and proposals) were helpful in measuring students' abilities and provided enough diagnostic feedback to assist them in seeing their strengths and weaknesses for improvement.

S2: Talking to all the students together at the final meeting was good because I could see that other students had similar concerns and problems in English, and we could learn from each other.
S5: The evaluation sheet was useful because it helped me learn how to check my own ability.
S9: I enjoyed watching the video of the simulation because I could see myself using English. I always wondered if others could understand what I was saying.

The final question dealt with the overall design of the simulation and asked students how it could be improved. Of the 15 students, seven suggested no specific changes. The other eight students recommended modifications in format, timing, role allocation, and formal feedback. Some of these suggestions include:

S1: The first day was exciting, but as the simulation continued on over several classes, it lost some of its momentum.
S10: I wish more cultural issues in working with foreign companies would have been introduced.
S15: It would have been nice if there had been some foreign teachers acting as members of the staff to motivate and force us to communicate more in English.

Final Reflections

The results of the survey and my own observations have helped me chart a new course using simulations as the cornerstone of our program. One might question the plausibility of carrying out such elaborate simulations, considering the limitations of time and space, for example, while dealing simultaneously with weighty demands of classroom requirements already. Finding myself under the same constraints, I have slowly progressed from simple skits, to detailed role plays, to more involved productions over some time, giving myself time to digest and process this unique method of teaching and testing while gaining converts along the way. . . and the reward has encouraged me to push on.

Whatever the obstacles, the comments in the questionnaire have shown me that once students had tasted the benefits of simulation, their desires to learn improved considerably. Furthermore, the extent to which the students praised our efforts not only reflects how radically different this kind of approach still is in Japan, but how little simulations have permeated into the classroom although they have been the focus of discussion for many years in teacher-training circles. Finally, the students' responses seem to mirror the current state of affairs in many language-teaching settings: traditional methods of assessing oral proficiency do little to prepare the trainee for the realities and demands of life.

Since initiating the use of simulations as a pedagogical learning and testing tool in the classroom, my students and I have found a great sense of fulfillment and satisfaction in taking part in activities that innovative, pragmatic in nature, and fun. What Jones observed several years ago is just as, if not more, significant today: "The time seems to be ripe for extending their [simulations] use . . . particularly in the field of language assessment" (1982, p. 77).

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Appendix A: Student-Generated Checklist

This assessment is based on the list of responsibilities and skills needed as a member of Fly Company. Use the following list to judge your own abilities and write other comments.

3 = Well done
2 = Fair - Needs improvement
1 = Unable to finish the work satisfactorily

1. I can use the computer to write letters/faxes/memos: 3 2 1
(format, addresses, punctuation, spelling, greetings and closings, envelope format, fax layout, abbreviations, speed, etc.)

2. I am able to answer the phone and take messages in English: 3 2 1
(answering the phone, asking for additional information, recording message correctly, responding quickly, etc.)

3. I work well with other employees in the office: 3 2 1
(helping others as a team and eager to do extra work when needed, etc.)

4. I am able to express my opinions clearly on important decisions: 3 2 1
(agreeing, disagreeing, persuading, asking questions, etc.)

5. I complete my assigned work on time: 3 2 1

6. I come to work on time: 3 2 1

Other:

Employee's Signature Position Date

Employer's Signature Position Date

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Evaluation of Listening-Focused Classes

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Introduction

This paper discusses the new curriculum of Aichi Gakuin University, the role listening-focused classes play, and presents a case study of a listening-focused class.

The New Curriculum of Aichi-Gakuin University and the Role of Listening Focused Classes

Why Were Listening-Focused Classes Introduced as a Core Subject?

The aim of the new curriculum, starting in 94, was to respond to students' call for developing English proficiency in real situations. Two things accelerated its realization. One was the decision of the Ministry of Education (*Monbusho*) to move toward communicative English learning, and the other was to make summer language courses abroad successful. Aichi Gakuin students were not used to communicating with foreigners at all. They gave up easily more communication and were often content with the classroom English.

It suggested an important thing about this new curriculum. English teachers had to make students accustomed to communicating in English. How can they, especially students with lower levels of language attainment, manage it? For the new curriculum to respond to this question, it is needed, first of all, to provide all the students with listening and speaking classes. Generally speaking, Japanese university students have too little experience in listening comprehension and oral communication. According to the result of Questionnaire given between June and July, 1995, only 5-6% of the freshmen had classes of those kinds every week in the past (see Table 1).

Listening and oral communication were designed as one semester subjects, because students were only required to take three one-year classes although four classes were needed so that each skill-oriented subject could be taught intensively. One could have chosen to cut reading and writing instead, in consideration of what students lack. But most of English teachers thought that any more preference for listening/speaking would be too radical. Moderate change was wanted.

Nevertheless, it was essential to give students a revolutionary image concerning the curriculum. Then it was decided to have all the students taught by native speakers of English who were to teach oral communication. Thus Japanese teachers of English were to teach listening-focused classes.

Why Have Listening-Focused Classes Been Taught by Japanese Teachers?

Two other reasons for separating listening from oral communication exist. One is futuristic: a design of collaboration between Japanese and native speaking English teachers in class activities. Any exercise of listening comprehension would be able to complement to oral communication and vice versa. Those two classes can be regarded as a sort of whole-year class.

The other reason is more serious. Even the moderate change in the new curriculum was really revolutionary to the Japanese teachers, because it increased the number of classes taught by native speakers of English: 44 in total for oral communication and English conversation, whereas only eight were necessary for English conversation before 1994.

Good reason for teaching practical English must be declared. Most Japanese teachers are probably at a great disadvantage unless they can tell students their own experiences in foreign countries about what makes it difficult to communicate and how they get over these difficulties. It should be personal, as there can be some truths hidden behind such experiences which English native speakers cannot notice because they are native. It is a sort of contribution to building up a method for teaching English to Japanese. And, generally speaking, Japanese teachers can contribute more in listening comprehension than in oral communication.

Are Students Content with Listening-Focused Classes?

The main aim of the questionnaire mentioned above is to know how students evaluate listening-focused classes. According to the results shown in Table 2 and Table 3, they are very successful. 42.3% of the students enjoy listening (Table 2) and 52.4% of them think listening-focused classes are useful as an initiation into communicative English lessons (Table 3).

The Difference in Students' Responses between Listening-Focused Classes and Oral Communication Classes: For Future Collaboration

The questionnaire has another aim: to investigate the difference in student responses between listening-focused and oral communication classes. Where does the difference, if any, come from? As the sum of the figures of 5 and 4 in Table 2 clearly show, oral-communication classes (62%) are more preferable than listening-focused classes (42.3%). It is well known that what students want most in university is native speakers' classes.

Such a preference by Japanese students seems closely related to the presumable crisis in the future for Japanese teachers mentioned above. But, according to the results of the questionnaire, the situation is not worse than expected. The number of the students who think listening-focused classes are useful (52.4%) is larger than that of those who enjoy them (42.3%). The negative answers also decrease from 13.1% in the question concerning students' enjoyment of the classes (Table 2) to 9.6% in the question concerning students' perceived benefits (Table 3). The result is also meaningful when compared to the response concerning oral communication classes, where the difference in the percentage of the negative answers between Table 2 (4%) and Table 3 (3.4%) is rather small. The number of positive answers even decreases from 62% in Table 2 to 58.8% in Table 3.

More interestingly, although the answer "so so" is most common (44.6%) to the question of how enjoyable listening is, the answer "useful" becomes the largest (43.2%) in Table 3 when the question comes to how beneficial it is. And the number of choices other than 4 ("useful") decreases, when compared to those in Table 2 (13.1% to 9.2% on 5; 44.6% to 38.0% on 3; 9.0% to 7.6% on 2; 4.1% to 2.0% on 1). It means the students who vary on how much they enjoy listening tend to agree more or less on its benefit.

On the other hand, the students who answer "so so" on the question how useful oral communication classes are (37.8%) is larger in number than those who answer the same on the question how enjoyable they are (34.0%). Correspondingly the answer "useless" in Table 3 (3.0%) is a little larger than the answer "not much" in Table 2 (2.6%).

Those results suggest that listening-focused classes can be roughly characterized by students as useful, and oral communication classes as enjoyable. Presumably students feel that native - speaking English teachers' classes, represented by oral communication classes here, are a kind of epicurean, fun-based English lessons, whereas Japanese English teachers' classes, represented by listening-focused ones, are a kind of stoic, continence-based English lessons. Some students even note in the questionnaires that they do not believe that language learning with much fun will be effective. The results of the questionnaire thus exemplify that the traditionally rigorous attitudes toward learning are still strong among young Japanese. Even the students who declare their liking for fun-based English lessons still seem to believe that language learning cannot be filled with fun.

Here are possibilities for Japanese English teachers' collaboration with native speaking English teachers. One can encourage students to study enjoyably or broad-mindedly, not to study rigorously. Or else one should bring home to students that listening classes are really useful although they are not fun. But all English teachers do not seem to recognize this enough. As many as 46.7% of the students in listening-focused classes cannot decide whether or not to take another listening class, according to Table 4. Standing apart from possibilities of other reasons, I would like to focus on this: they cannot decide because it would inevitably depend on the degree to which they are satisfied. It would probably also depend on what and how their teachers teach.

Table 1: Question: Did you have classes of the same kind in the past?

	Listening Classes	Oral Communica tion Classes
5: Every week	6.2	5.6
4: Sometimes per semester	10.7	11.8
3: Sometimes per year	18.5	15.9
2: Few classes in the past	36.4	39.5
1: No classes in the past	28.2	27.2
	100(%)	100(%)

Table 2: Question: Did you enjoy this class?

5: Very much	13.1	24.6
4: Much	29.2	37.4
3: So so	44.6	34.0
2: Not much	9.0	2.6
1: Not at all	4.1	1.4
	100(%)	100(%)

Table 3: Do you think this class is useful?

5: Very useful	9.2	13.2
4: Useful	43.2	45.6
3: So so	38.0	37.8
2: Useless	7.6	3.0
1: Very useless	2.0	0.4
	100(%)	100(%)

Table 4: If the similar subjects are available, do you want to take them?

5: Definitely yes	8.0	18.3
4: Yes	30.7	39.8
3: Not decided yet	46.7	35.7
2: No	9.9	4.9
1: Definitely no	4.7	1.
	100(%) 1	00(%)

A Case Report: A Listening-Focused C lass Niwa's Natural Method And Procedure

This method is a 'practice makes perfect' method. Listening to a story many times with the intention of understanding a story can get students to find the most appropriate method for themselves naturally. This method has nothing specific, such as paying attention to chunks, rhythm or pictures. The one important factor is to have the intention to understand a story and to try to predict a story. The rest of the psychological activities needed for listening is entrusted to individual linguistic instinct.

The procedure consists of listening and testing in each period. For listening, *Today' Japan, Listening-focused Exercises* by T. Yamazaki and Stella M. Yamazaki (1993) was used. Among 20 stories 6 were picked at random and 50 copies of two types of tests were prepared each time.

Listening should be natural and abundant. Each story is spoken at natural speed, probably with more than 160 wpm, and is rather a long story consisting of about 200 words. Each story is repeated 10 times in all.

Testing is of two types. The first is 3 true and false questions and 4 of multiple choice questions (this is referred to as Choice or C test). The second is a kind of dictation (or cloze), that is, 10 questions of filling in blanks with the appropriate words (this is referred to as Dictation or D test). In order to avoid students' preparing beforehand , the two types of tests were prepared each time and texts were not used at all. After collecting answer sheets for the Choice test, the answer sheets for the Dictation test were handed out. So the result of Choice test depends completely on listening experience. Further two teachers supervised during each test to prevent students from talking to each other about the answers.

Evaluation and Analysis

The following are the main points in the evaluation of this method and the analysis of the results of the two tests.

High Motivation

The first simple success of this class is that students devoted themselves to comprehension of the stories very seriously. Usually they talk to each other and are noisy in the class . The length of listening time is long and reaches as many as

50 minutes without a break. This simple exercise happens once in two weeks all through the term. Under such conditions they worked very hard, engaging in listening to the stories very seriously. This means that they had sufficient motivation to try to understand each story.

The Results of The D Test

The Dictation test did not show improvement. See scores and graphs in Figure 2. The coefficient of the Choice test and the Dictation test is very low. The highest coefficient is 0.47 between C4 and D4. The lowest is 0.14 between C1 and D1. This means that students did not improve in word-after-word, bottom-up listening processing.

The Result of The C Test (1)

In contrast with the Dictation test, students showed improvement in the Choice test each time (see scores and graphs in Figure 1). The number of students are 50 and maximum scores are 10 each time. The improvement is statistically significant between the beginning C1 and the last C6 (P= 5.714E-13). Improvement was even significant each time between C1 and C2 (P=0.0007019), between C2 and C3 (P=0.02), between C4 and C5 (P=0.02), but not significant between C3 and C4 (P=0.30) and between C5 and C6 (P=0.29). One can conclude that they made progress in top-down processing and predicting content.

The Result of The C Test (2)

In order to understand the reason for this improvement more, the results were analyzed, dividing the students to three groups: high level , intermediate level and low level (abbreviated HIL in the title of graphs below). The criterion for the level division depended on the scores of Choice test 1 + Dictation 1 (20 points). The average of high level group is 7.90, intermediate level group 5.6 and low level group 3.0.

Interestingly it was found that low and intermediate level students showed more improvement than high level students (compare the scores and graphs in Figure 4).

More clearly one can see the difference of improvement between these groups by comparing the results of the 1st test (beginning) and the 6th test (end) (see Figure 3). The low level group improved most from 2.21 to 5.78, then the intermediate level group from 3.84 to 5.64 and the high level group from 4.36 to 6.45. This means that improvement was made on the process of prediction or imagination rather than listening to each word, and as far as process of prediction goes, it seems that low level students have more room for improvement. It means even low level students can understand such an English story roughly and choose a correct answer , even though they do not understand each word, and probably the structure of each sentence. The process of prediction is a top-down process and is very important for everybody who engages in listening comprehension activities. Here Schlesinger' words in Rivers (1981, pp.161-162) strongly confirm this:

> In listening we may not bother to process most of syntax...we resort to the analysis of the syntax of the sound signal only when there is ambiguity or when, for some reason, we have not extracted a clear meaning from signal. If this is so, foreign-language learners need a wide recognition vocabulary for rapid comprehension, rather than a sophisticated knowledge of syntax.

However, this practice for listening has long been neglected in Japan, even in reading and writing. Teachers have emphasized translating Japanese or English sentences into English or Japanese sentences, accurately without grammatical errors. This traditional way of teaching has made students pay attention only to words or short sentences, neglecting the understanding of the meanings at a paragraph or story level. It seems that prediction is one of the important factors in understanding a story. Therefore, if the above assumed reason for this improvement is right , one can conclude that this listening focused class was successful and could supplement what has been neglected so far in Japan.

Students' Impression

The result of the C test (2) agrees with the response of each student to the questionnaire. Low and intermediate level students had an impression of more improvement than high level students (see Figure 5). Self evaluation is shown by scores: 1 (no progress), 2 (some progress), 3 (progress) and 4 (much progress). This result is partly confirmed by Iwata's questionnaire result.

Future Problem: Harmony between Top-Down and Bottom Up Listening

This listening class has produced a fruitful result. However the final goal of listening competence is far from being reached. This must include integration of top-down and bottom-up processes. Peterson (1961, p. 109) says, "This model of listening as an interactive process suggests a new integration of both global (top-down) and selective (bottom-up) listening in the class room." Much research so far has been done in Japan in order to improve the teaching of bottom-up processing in Japan. However, any concrete method to integrate both processes has not been suggested. Therefore all that was done this time is (1) to encourage the students to have the desire for understanding a meaning, (2) to have the competence of prediction about a story and (3) to have as much experience of listening to native speakers' speech as possible. It might be difficult to find any one method for harmonious integration of top-down and bottom-up processing . However, it is necessary and will be possible that an effective standard method for it will be found by repeating researches with patience.

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FIGURE 1

Multiple Choice Test Scores

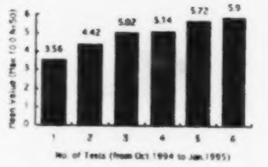


FIGURE 2

Dictation Test Scores

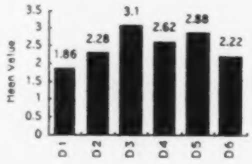


FIGURE 3

HIL 1st and 6th Choice Test Scores

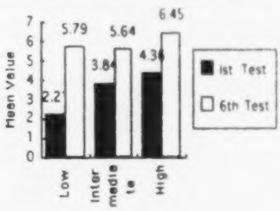


FIGURE 4

HIL C Test Result (from C1 to C6)

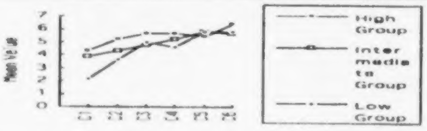
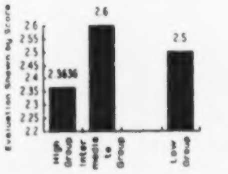


FIGURE 5

Self-Evaluation of Improvement



Interpreting Teacher and Course Evaluations

T. R. Honkomp
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Addressing the students' needs is an educational objective that most university instructors consider before the long-term planning of a semester course as well as before daily lesson planning and subsequent teacher-student interaction. "[Teachers] must constantly adjust their methods and materials on the basis of their identification of the local needs of their students" (Tarone & Yule, 1989, p.3). Most Japanese college students are enrolled in one or more classes with names like 'Freshman English,' 'English Conversation,' or 'Oral English' regardless of whether or not on their own free will since these courses are usually compulsory. Although rarely voiced, students do have expectations concerning learning objectives. As Wenden (1990, p.169) states, "... adult learners bring expectations to their language learning based on their previous educational experiences ..." and they are usually optimistic when it comes to attaining actual or perceived improvement in their oral English ability.

A typical first-year student at a Japanese university has had the mandatory six years of English before entering, three years in junior high school and three years in high school. The common resulting phenomenon from the years of studying English in the Japanese educational system is that the students generally have a solid background of fundamental English grammar and a basic vocabulary for beginning level students. A common deficiency, however, is that the students have little or no communicative ability. To strengthen this inadequacy emerges as an identifiable student need and it is then the challenge to the teacher to successfully address it.

It becomes particularly challenging to determine if, and then to what degree, the teacher has met the students' needs. There are unlimited options of rather objectively determining a student's degree of success or improvement in a host of language skills. For example, tests can identify strengths and weaknesses in the areas of grammar, vocabulary, reading comprehension, sentence structuring, listening comprehension, and error identification to name a few. But it becomes much more difficult to objectively assess level and improvement in the realm of oral skills.

Paradoxically, these skills are the ones that can be the source of the most concern and anxiety for students. Cultural inhibitions and individual circumstances aside, who has not heard a story or two about the Japanese student who had a high score on an institutionally recognized test, but could not utter a word when confronted with a seemingly ordinary question from a native speaker? One source of finding out whether or not students' needs have been addressed and determining if the students have indeed improved their spoken English that is often overlooked, especially in a traditional Japanese educational setting, is the students themselves. This paper will define an attempt to use the students as a source of teacher and course evaluation through the means of a questionnaire. The results will then be analyzed and discussed.

A total of 252 students took part in the teacher and course evaluation project. The students were enrolled in a four-year women's university. The course met year-round, that is to say that there were approximately fifteen ninety-minute class meetings in both the first and the second semesters. It was after completion of their final exam of the second semester that students were asked to complete the evaluation. The form consisted of ten questions and a space for additional comments (see Appendix A). With respect to the students' level of expression, the form was written in both Japanese and English. The students' course name and section number were requested, but students were told not to write their names on the evaluation form with the hope that anonymity would increase the objectivity of their responses. Students were asked to rate the teacher and course on a scale with five gradients: 'Poor,' 'Below Average,' 'Average,' 'Above Average,' and 'Excellent'.

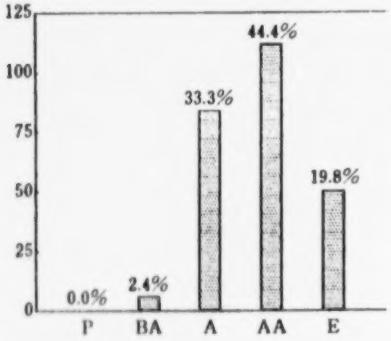
Teacher and course evaluations have intrinsic merit amounting to more than just a popularity contest. A teacher who voluntarily subjects him/herself to the potentially subjective opinions of language learners makes a few inherent statements about his/her teaching philosophy. For example, the teacher believes that the results themselves are worth the time and effort involved to tabulate, translate, read, analyze, and interpret. In addition, the results are worth the risk that there might possibly be some critical information that could be a source of ego-bashing for a sensitive instructor. By utilizing a teacher and course evaluation, a teacher makes the statement that improving the potential of the class and subsequently the level of the student's English is more important than the aforementioned risks and efforts. There is always the possibility that the instructor will discover a previously unthought of aspect of his/her classes, lessons, or techniques and gain insight into the student's learning. After all, it is impossible for an instructor to see his/her teaching form the eyes of each and every one of the students. Evaluations give a teacher access to student perspective, and are at least one way to help a teacher become more aware of student need identification and student self-assessment of improved oral English skills. Furthermore, sometimes the results can be enlightening, revealing, positive, and even humorous.

Statistical Analysis and Interpretation

With more than 250 students answering ten questions, a total of slightly more than 2500 responses were generated. This amount of data automatically lends itself to number comparison. The five options given to students to choose from are represented as follows: P = Poor, BA = Below Average, A = Average, AA = Above Average, E = Excellent. Of course the question of arbitrariness can be posed. In other words, what exactly do 'Poor,' 'Below Average,' 'Average,' 'Above Average,' and 'Excellent' mean?
Teacher Evaluation/6 'Poor' in terms of what? 'Average' in terms of what? 'Excellent' in terms of what? The validity of the gradients on the rating system can only be interpreted through the individual life experience of the students. Being naturally subjective, possible influencing factors include all or some of the following: pre-course expectations, previous English learning experiences in junior high school, high school, college and other private schools, previous teachers at those institutions, post-course self-assessment of improved (or regressed) language skills, and whether or not the student felt that the teacher adequately identified and satisfied his/her needs. It goes without saying that outside factors could effect the tone and attitude a student has when filling out the evaluation. If the student were 'having a bad day,' or were simply tired before completing the teacher and course evaluation, then that could naturally be reflected in the results. However, when taking into consideration the sheer numbers generated by the surveys, it can be interpreted that the numbers depict an accurate overview of the course, incorporating a reasonable margin of error of ±10%.

Each question of the survey is worded to address a fundamental pedagogical question concerning teachers and courses. Questions 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, and 7 (see Appendix A) either directly or indirectly have to do with the evaluation of the instructor. Questions 3 and 8 are closely connected to the course and curriculum. Questions 9 and 10 ask the student to do some introspection and focus on him/herself. For example, if the teacher were concerned about the fairness of the method of testing and evaluation of students, question number 2 (see Appendix A) could provide some insight. Several individual numerical results are interesting to observe. The results of question number 1, 'In general, how would you rate this instructor as a teacher?' are shown in the following graph (Fig. 1):

Figure 1 - Distribution of responses to question #1



On this question, 162 responses or 60.3% fell into the 'Above Average' and 'Excellent' categories. Combining those results with the results of the 'Average' category, there are 256 responses. In other words, a full 97.6% of the students surveyed thought that the teacher was at least average or better. Only a mere 6 responses of 252 or 2.4% felt that the teacher was deficient. The conclusion drawn is that the teacher in general had a successful year in meeting the students' needs for an instructor during the courses included in the survey. The corresponding graphs and percentages for all of the questions on the survey are listed in Appendix B. Refer to these for a complete breakdown of the survey results.

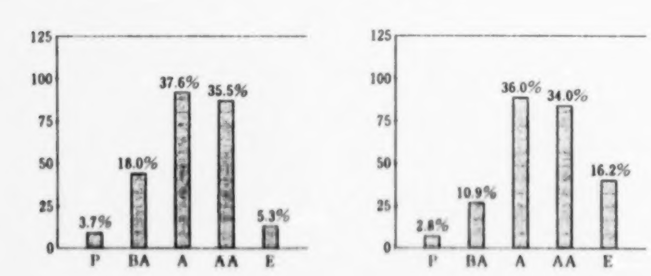
Question number 9, 'How much improvement in English do you think you made from this course?' and question number 10, 'How would you rate your own study habits and the effort you made in this course?' were the two questions on the survey that required students to do some self-assessment. The results of these two questions are shown in the Figure 2.

A glance at the breakdown of these two questions shows that the results from the 'Below Average' and 'Poor' categories had higher percentages than the results from the corresponding categories from all of the other questions on the survey. Accordingly, the 'Excellent' category had the lowest percentages of all questions. It is interesting to note the correlating distribution of responses. It is difficult to argue the importance of out-of-classroom participation when it comes to making progress in language learning. Rubin (1987, p.17) asserts, "It is essential for students to be able to control their own learning process so that they can learn outside the classroom once they are on their own." It seems that students who rated their improvement in English as minimal similarly rated their own effort.

Written Highlights

Perhaps the most useful section of the teacher and course evaluation form was the final part where students were asked to write comments about the ten questions or offer suggestions for improving the course (see Appendix A). Most students chose to write their students in Japanese, they were then translated to English. Although it may have been tempting for students to completely disregard the written comments section, it was encouraging to note that almost 75% of the students who filled out the evaluation took the time to write down their thoughts, and in some cases completely filled a page. The original written comments that the students made are perhaps even more subjective than the pre-determined ten questions. However, they also probably depict a more accurate picture of what the students' needs

Figure 2 - Distribution of responses to questions #9 and #10


Question #9

Question #10

really are. Although improvements for the teacher and the course were specifically solicited, it was comforting to find out that in the end not all of the comments were negative nor critical, and in fact, most were positive. Several common reoccurring themes appeared in the almost 200 pages of comments. Some of the highlights are illustrated.

The teacher in these courses made it a point to institute an 'Only English' policy in the classroom. The rules of the policy were explained on the very first day of class, and students were reminded and encouraged to use only English throughout the year in order to reap the pedagogical benefits. At the end of the year more than 40 students made written comments praising the practice of total immersion in English during class time. Some typical comments were as follows:

> "The teacher spoke only English in class, which was first very difficult for me. However, I later realized that my listening skills had been greatly improved."
>
> "I think what was great about this class was that students were not allowed to speak in Japanese. In other words, we were forced to speak in English to learn that we actually can speak in English."

It was refreshing to see so many students gleaned awareness of their improved language learning through just one teacher-instituted policy. Of course not all students agreed with it as shown below.

> "I understand the importance of total immersion in English. However, this class was difficult for most of us, due to the lack of grammatical knowledge and vocabulary on our part. I'd expect the instructor to use Japanese when it's necessary. I was sometimes lost when he explained only in English."

All in all, there were literally almost one thousand comments about the teacher and courses. Naturally, they ranged from the mundane:

> "This class was fun"

to the insightful:

> "At first I hated this class because I wasn't used to expressing myself. However, I now realize that it worked positively for me because I'm more aware of the importance of having my own opinion and expressing it."
>
> "I learned that I am the one who has to take responsibility for improving my English. I have to make the effort."

One might not expect an eighteen-year-old first-year university student to have such an awareness about his/her language learning.

Reading through all of the written comments proved to be very informative. Many comments concerned individual class activities, the ones that the students felt the most and the least beneficial. There were suggestions on how to increase class speaking time and efficiency. Gaining insight to how the students perceive a teacher, a technique, a lesson, a class, a course, a curriculum, or an administration is always a challenge for an instructor. Written feedback from the students may be one of the best ways to see a teacher's lesson as the students do.

Conclusion

Teacher and course evaluations can be a useful tool for a teacher willing to gain insight into the way his/her lessons are being perceived. The students themselves are the best resource from which to elicit commentary or criticism. There are an unlimited number of teacher, course, and curriculum related topics that can arise. The use of the target language or the student's native language in the classroom is just an example. Others include homework issues, testing, lesson organization, teaching techniques, lesson activities, cultural topics and differences, class size, and seating arrangements to name a few, and the list goes on. Of course there are risks involved, there is always the possibility that students will criticize and have negatives comments about an instructor or course. However, the risk is worth taking especially when a teacher stands to gain an increased awareness about his/her classes. A problem or alteration is more easily rectified after it has been identified.

Another quote from one of the teacher and course evaluations read as Teacher Evaluation/14 follows:

> "I suspect that you won't change your teaching style."

This seems to be a simple comment. One interpretation for the teacher is that student feedback can have as much or as little impact on teaching and course structure as the teacher sees fit. It is impossible to please all of the students all of the time or as Gaies (1983, p.191) puts it, "What was surprising to me was how different students reacted to what went on in the classroom period." Within the realm of a classroom there will be conflicting opinions on any given issue. It is up to the teacher's judgement to filter feedback before deciding whether or not to implement change. Holec, (1987, p.150) sums it up as follows, "The management of evaluation involves both passing types of judgement and using the results yielded as a basis for keeping or modifying the learning program."

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APPENDIX A－Teacher and Course Evaluation

教員および科目評価
TEACHER/COURSE EVALUATION

＊学籍番号・氏名は記入しないこと
Do NOT write your name or student number on this paper.

教員名
Teacher ______________________

科目名
Course ______________________

学科名
Section ______________________

記入例　：このカフェテリアの食事をどう評価しますか。
Example ：How would you rate the food in the cafeteria？

○	○	☒	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

1．この教員を教師としてどう評価しますか。
In general, how would you rate this instructor as a teacher？

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

2．この科目の学生の評価の仕方，テストの仕方をどう思いますか。
How would you rate the evaluation and testing of students in this course？

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

3．この科目を構成の点でどう評価しますか。目標や方向性ははっきりしていますか。
How would you rate this course in terms of its organization, clarity of objectives and directions？

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

4．1回の講義の構成をどう評価しますか。目標や方向性ははっきりしていますか。
How would you rate the lessons in terms of their organization, clarity of objectives and directions.

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

5．この科目は興味をそそられ，熱中させられ，刺激のあるものですか。
How would you rate the interest, enthusiasm, and stimulation the instructor brings to this course?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

6．この教員の講義をわかりやすくするためのプレゼンテーションの仕方や説明の能力をどう評価しますか。
How would you rate the instructor's manner of presentation and ability to explain in a clear and understandable fashion?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

7．この教員の学生に対する態度はどうですか。（学生への配慮，関心，敬意）
How would you rate the instructor's attitude toward students (concern, interest, respect)?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

8．全体のカリキュラムから考えた場合の，この科目の重要性をどう評価しますか。
How would you rate the importance of this course in terms of its suitability in the overall student curriculum?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

9．この科目によってあなたはどのくらい英語が上達したと思いますか。
How much improvement in English do you think you made from this course?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

10．あなたがこの科目のために勉強したり努力したことをどう評価しますか。
How would you rate your own study habits and the effort you made in this course?

○	○	○	○	○
良くない	あまり良くない	普通	まあ良い	大変良い
Poor	Below Average	Average	Above Average	Excellent

コメント：この科目をもっと良くするための意見，提案などがあれば，上記のことを含め，下の余白に自由に書いて下さい。必要なら他の用紙も使って下さい。

Comments: Please feel free to comment about any of the preceding areas, or offer suggestions you might have for improving this course. Use an additional piece of paper if you need more space.

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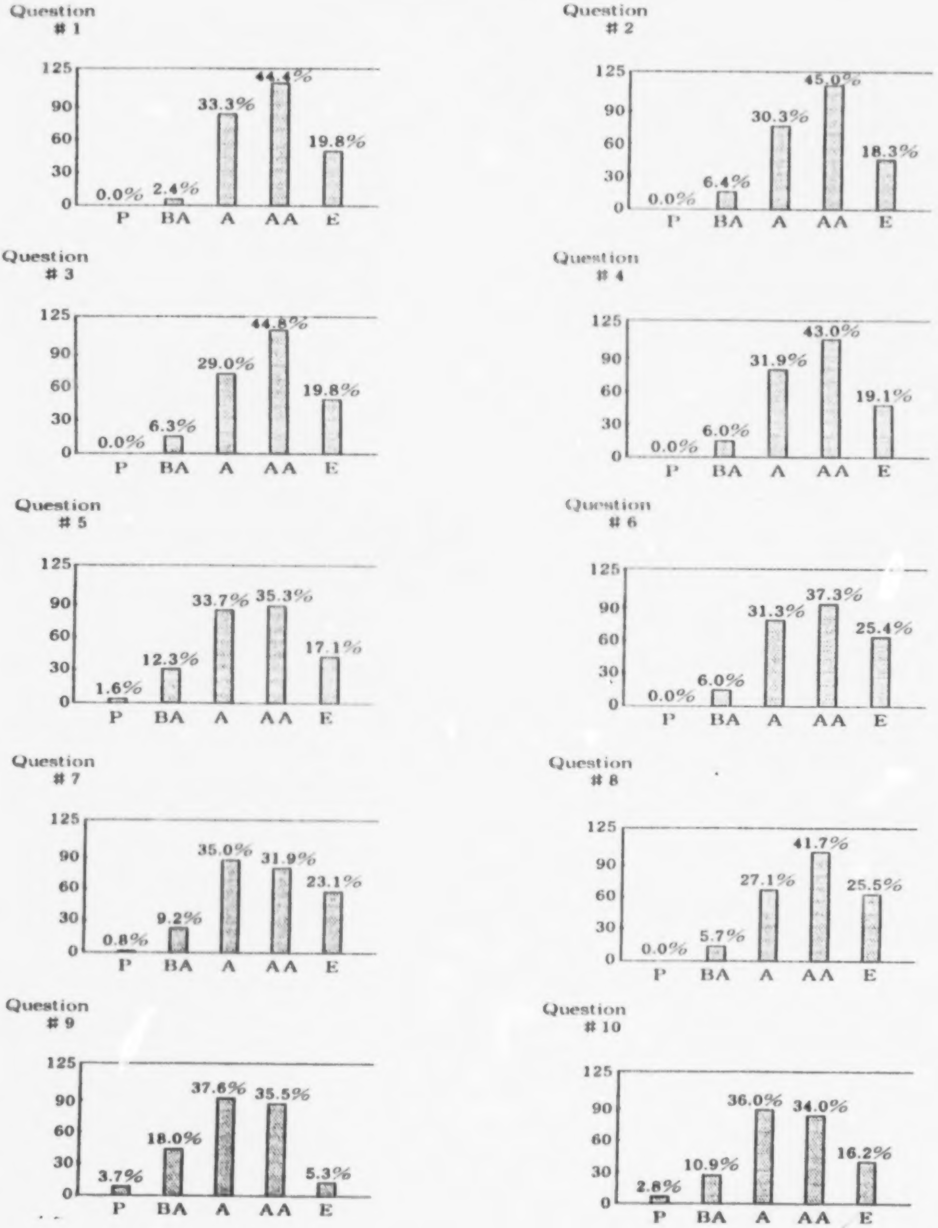
Appendix B – Statistical and Graphic Representation of Teacher and Course Evaluations.

Chart 1 – Total Responses of 252 Evaluations from 5 Classes.

Key : P = Poor 良くない
BA = Below Average あまり良くない
A = Average 普通
AA = Above Average まあ良い
E = Excellent 大変良い



Section One

Looking Forward, Looking Backward

My Story of Language Teaching

Andrew Wright

私の５０年にわたる外国語の学び方、教え方について述べている。それぞれの経験は社会の教育的価値と語学教育へのアイデアや教材に対するその影響について述べたものである。

Change in Education: Historical and Social Perspectives

Thomas L. Simmons, Dawn Yonally, & Tadashi Shiozawa

1991年の高等教育機関教育の大綱化に関する答申をきっかけとして、明治初期や戦後期の教育改革に匹敵する規模の教育改革が、今行われようとしている。この大綱化により言語教育も大きな改革を迫られ、すでに、ある大学では外国語のカリキュラムを多様化して学生のニーズに答えようとし、ある大学では外国語の授業をほとんど廃止して、経費削減の一助としてしまった。なぜこのような全く反対の解釈が可能なのであろうか。本論は、その原因を政治的、社会的な見地から探ろうとしたものである。前半で、明治以来の日本の教育改革の特長を考察する。後半で、改革を成功させるためのいくつかの特長的な要素をアメリカの先行研究を通して探る。最後に、日本における外国語教育の改革をすすめるにあたって、留意すべき点をいくつか提示する。

Teacher Development: Possible Pathways Forward

Andrew Barfield, Clive Lovelock, Kevin Mark, Junko Okada, & Jan Visscher

次の4つの論文はJALT95のTeacher Education NSIGで「Training and Development：Possible Pathways Forward」と題して行われたコロキアムで、その参加者がそれぞれの発言内容をまとめたものである。クライブ・ラブロックは教師の「養成」と「育成」の違いを説き、養成コースの基本理念を概説する。ケヴィン・マークは、学習者が使っている英語をデータベース化し、教室活動や教材の作成を、データ集めを組み込んだ形で行うことを提唱する。データは学習者の言語学習におけるニーズの把握に役立つだけでなく、学習者の気持ちや態度についての理解も深まる。岡田順子は高校でのカリキュラム改正について考える。教えながら問題点を見つけだし、研究に生かすという協力作業による教育を推進するためには、教師がカリキュラムを柔軟に変えられるような体制が、文部省の側に求められることを指摘する。ヤン・ヴィシャーは教師養成コースの学生が陥る精神的な躓きについて考え、教師養成とは、人間的な成長、変化、そして一貫性のある総合的な教育理念を育成することにあるとの認識にたつことが必要であると説く。

Section Two

Curriculum Design

Competency Assesment in Curriculum Renewal

Ian Harrison, Francis Johnson, Christopher Candlin, Anthony Green, David Nunan, & Charles Smith

この討論会は、1992年のJALT会議で発足し、神田外語学院（KIFL）のカリキュラム開発プロジェクトの下に進行中の開発ワークの様々な断面についての討議を行ったシリーズ討論会の第四弾です。本書は、1995年討論会で述べられた学校カリキュラム開発関連の学習者評価の論点の幾つかを記したものです。

- 技能熟練度の評価から学習者の能力評価への移行；
- 言語、非言語要素を含む学習者のための能力プロフィールの決定；

- 能力及びカリキュラム関連のプレイスメント・テストの開発；
- 評価過程における学習者の役割。

- 能力及びカリキュラム関連のプレイスメント・テストの開発;
- 評価過程における学習者の役割。

The Envolving of a Curriculum

Hiroshi Abe, Kyle Perrin, & Dennis Woolbringht

カリキュラムに関する議論は、英語学科の場合を含めて、そのほとんどが出発点であるべき組織体（学校）全体のレベルというより学科レベルで生じるので、各科目や教授法、さらには教材に焦点がおかれることが多い。本稿では新カリキュラム作成に関わった者として、一短大の英語科の諸例を取り上げながら、カリキュラム運営について論述したい。そうすることにより、効果的な運営の仕方が、最終的には各科目の発展を促し、教授法や教材の選択を決定することになるし、カリキュラム改革への焦点を当てることになるからである。カリキュラム改革の過程は、整然で明確な一連の流れの中で実施され、すべての変更点は定められた期日までに文部省に提出され得るように、期日設定のもとに行なわれた。ただ、通常の方法と若干異なる点といえば、委員会が日本人と英語のネイティブスピーカーの半々の割合で構成され、両者とも決定権をもつことができたということであろう。

Managing Curriculum Change

Christopher Candlin, Ian Harrison, & Mercedes Mont

本書は語学教育におけるカリキュラム開発のために取りうる方法を検討し、日本の二年制専門学校において現在進行中のカリキュラム共同開発のモデルとなるものです。本書の中で立証される事項は、この開発についての研究で明らかになったものです。様々な関連当事者の関係及び役割に内在する緊迫関係が調査され、カリキュラム改新を実施してゆくためのヒントが提示され、検討されています。

Designing and Teaching a Content-Based Course

Jerald Halvorsen & Robert E. Gettings

Content-based class（英語による一般教育）の授業計画をたてる上で、現在行われているカリキュラム・デザインの研究、第二言語の習得に関する研究、および一般教育に関する問題の研究は有益である。本論文では、まずこれらの研究について触れ、その後にSheltered content-based EFLカリキュラム（シェルター型の英語による一般教育カリキュラム）をデザインし、教える上で必要な５つの注意点について議論する。それらの５つの注意点とは、ステイクホルダー（カリキュラム・デザインに影響を与える人々）を明らかにする事、学生の能力と講義内容、および言語指導との間のバランス、学生の第一言語の使用、EFLのクラスで使用できる教材、さらにカリキュラムに対する評価である。カリキュラム・デザインの過程で、学生は社会、学校、教員と同等に重要なステイクホルダーである。教員は学生の能力に応じで言語指導および講義内容を注意深く調整する必要がある。クラス評価やフィードバックを活かしてカリキュラムを改善する事により、学生の語学力および講義内容の高い習得が見られる。

Global Issues in Language Education Colloquium

Kip Cates, Carl Dusthimer, Heather Jones, Anchalee Chayanuvat, & Michael Higgins

このコロキュアムはJALTのSpecial Interest Group（分科会）であるGlobal Issues in Language Educationの主催であり、この会議のテーマであるカリキュラムと評価をクローバル教育と言語教育における国際問題との関連において話し合った。そして、「国際理解を促進し、世界問題に関する知識を深めるような言語教育のコースはどのように組み立てればよいか」、「学生を言語能力と世界問題の意識の深さという両方の面から評価するにはどうすればよいか」というような疑問に答えようと努めた。パネルは日本、韓国、タイ、カナダからのメンバーで構成され、韓国の英語の授業、カナダのESLの国際問題のコース、タイの大学での国際問題に基づいたEFLのコース、そして日本におけるグローバル教育に基づいた英語教育プログラムというそれぞれのグ

ローバル教育の状況について報告するとともに、上記の問題について話し合った。

Language Textbooks: Help or Hindrance?

Jane Crawford

指導教材はしばしば、教職の能力を落としてしまうとして批判される。だが、本当は、教科書はもっとポジティブな役割を果たすことができるのである。本稿では、そういった役割のいくつかを探っていく。また、教材開発者には、教室の枠を広げるということと、学習プロセスの基礎にあるインタラクションを統括するということの両者のバランスをとることが求められるが、本稿では、この微妙なバランスについても探っていくことにする。以下、市販テキストが学習プロセスを支えるために、そして、想像力のない教師の拠り所としてなどでなく、有効でプロフェッショナルな道具となるために、踏まえておかなければならないと思われる、言語と学習者についての仮定を見ていく。

Materials Design for Self-Directed Learning

Nicholas Marshall & Marion Delarche

本稿は、学生の自立的学習態度の養成を目指す英語のクラスでの教材作成について論じている。これは神田外語大学で実験的なプロジェクトとして行われ、何を誰と学ぶか、という学習の責任を教師から学生へ1年間の授業の中で移していくことを目的としている。

本論ではまず、学習スタイルの個人差について述べる。これが自立的学習態度を養成すべきである理由になっているからである。続いてカリキュラム、シラバス、テーマ、タスク等のカリキュラムの枠組みについて説明する。この枠組みは緩やかなもので、その内容も学習者や教師からのフィードバックによって変えられる。

続いて、内容の異なった学習材料の相互の関連性や論理性について論じる。図1では全体の傾向を、図2では具体的なテーマを示す。

そして最後に結論として、この学習法は多くの学生にとって初めての経験であるため、時間をかけて新しいクラス環境に慣らしていくことが肝要だという見解を示す。

Developing Business English Materials for Japan

Ian Harrison, Thomas Healy, & R. Tapp

本書は神田外語学院のカリキュラム開発プロジェクトの一面、現代日本の職場の様々な場面で必要とされる英語の言語能力を開発するために、学習者中心のタスク・ベース教材を作成する過程を記したものです。当研究の第一部は実社会のワークプレース・テキスト、タスク及び活動を決定するために行われたリサーチについての記述です。第二部は教材開発の過程の実際と評価に焦点を置きました。これらのコース及び教材は、ある特定組織環境向けに開発されたものではありますが、本書で述べるプロセス並びに、取上げる論点は、あらゆる組織及び企業環境に関連性を持つものです。

Section Three

Computers and Language Learning

Computers, Language Learning and the Four Skills

Steve McGuire, Albert Dudley, Patricia Thornton, Paul Jaquith, Jay Lundelius, & Steve Tripp

コンピューターは日本ではもう何年も語学クラスで使用されてきているが、その目的は主に作文方法を教えることにある。この研究論文では次の段階に進んで、全ての言語技能を教授するためにCALLを用いることを考える。いくらか不自然な区分ではあるが、我々は伝統的な「4技能」に従ってこの問題に取り組んできた。どのセクションでも、ソフトウエアーを評価したり設計するために、また語学クラスでのソフトウエアーとコンピューターを効果的に使用するために、その音声理論上の基礎を与えるに際して、言語理論が各技能にいかに適合しているかを考察している。書く技能についての最終セクショ

ンでは、外の世界をクラスに持ち込むために、World Wide Web（世界ネットワーク）の情報資産を使用する利点を論じている。各技能の領域に関して、基本的な参考文献を載せている。

Creating Your Own Software

Steve McGuire & Marion Flaman

読者はおそらく次のような話は良く知っているでしょう．小さい学校の先生が英語の授業で学校のコンピュータを使用する許可をようやく貰う。しかしながら英語の授業で演習室を使用することを考えていなかったのでワープロ以外はあまりたくさんソフトがありません。このワープロも英作文の授業に使えるかどうかわかりません。

その先生は演習室を英語のコミュニケーションの授業に使いたいのです。しかし予算はソフトウエアのためには　あまりありません。そのうえ予算要求が承認されるまでには時間がかかるのです。

この論文で論じられていることは編集支援プログラムを使ってコンピュータ支援言語学習ないしマルチメディア授業を構築することです。二つの編集支援プログラムLibraとHyperGaspについて詳細に論じています。これらのプログラムは比較的安価で言語教育者が特に言語教育のために考案したものです。このプログラムが作られたのは編集支援ソフトウエアの力を利用するためです。また先生方が使用するに当たって簡単になっています。すなわち先生方は一般にはプログラムを作れませんしプログラミングの方法を学ぶ時間もありません。この論文ではいくつかの編集支援ソフトの言語授業に関係する概念と、この二つの編集支援ソフトがいろいろな状況での要求にあわせて使用できることを考察しました。

Multimedia for EFL Learners: Implications for Teaching and Learning

L. M. Dryden

マルチメディアは学生の語学学習、ミーニング・メイキング（Meaning making）、自己表現に技術的プラットフォームを与えます。この論文は、マルチメディア、ハイパーテキスト、ハイパーメディアの定義、区別を試みることから始め、語学授業におけるマルチメディアの限界と同時に、いくらかの可能性を調査するものです。また、この論文では、マルチメディアがデジタル革命の一部として、読み書き能力と学習能力にいかに影響を与えるかついての考えを結論として述べています。

CALL and Language Learning Strategies

Shigemitsu Yuka & Tanabe Hiroshi

東京工芸大学では、１９９３年度よりＣＡＬＬラボ（Computer assisted Language Learning Laboratory, コンピュータを導入したLL教室）の導入を計画し、1995年度4月より工学部の英語の授業で利用を始めた。CALLラボの授業での指導理念として、言語活動を人間の社会的行動ととらえること、人間の認知能力の伸長の中で英語の学習能力を育成することを考えた。言語を社会的行動と意識することからV字型のブースの配置が誕生した。学習者にとって孤立したコンピュータ学習という意識から対人間のコミュニケーションの中でコンピュータを活用するという意識に向かいやすくなるはずである。また、近年のめまぐるしいメディアの発達により、絶えず変化する英語能力のニーズへの対応力をつける必要から、私達は認知能力の伸長に求めた。

授業開始の7　か月後の学生にアンケート調査を行った。その結果、コンピュータを使った「英語」の授業に対しては学生は必ずしも信頼感があるとは言い難いことがわかった。大学入学前の学習経験から、戸惑いを訴えかけられるケースもあった。そこで、教員の第一の役割に、学習の目標と方法、あるいは教授法選択の意味について説明することをあげたい。また、CALLは間接的学習法略を指導するのに適していることもわかった。学習の動機づけ、学習にふさわしい情緒のありかたに好影響を与えやすいという結果もでた。このことから、CALLでは学習法略指導が適していると判断し、指導の理念の根幹とするに至っている。

新しい教育環境として、CALLラボの利用は学生への動機づけによい影響を与えていることが確認された。　その反面、学生からの期待を損なわないよう、指導者が適切に授業を進めていく工夫が成果を著しく左右すると言える。指導者はCALLラボでのさまざまな可能性を探りながら、指導理念、指導目的、シラバス等十分検討することが当面の課題である。

An Adjunct Model in the Computer Classroom: Project and Computers

Katharine Isabell

この論文はプロジェクトを用いて付帯英語の授業と応用情報科学（コンピュータ）の授業とをどのように統合したか描写する。プロジェクトは英語の知識とコンピュータの技能を駆使するとともに、同時に、学生が学んだ知識を活用し、現実にある問題に取り組むことにより学生の動機と意識を効果的に高めた。様々なインターネットのアプリケーションやサービスをマスターした後、ALSの学生はワールドワイドウェブ用の宮崎についての電子ガイドブックを作成した。論文の結論はプロジェクトに基づいた科目開発のガイドラインを示している。

Using Computer Networks to Facilitate Communication Network Projects at Chubu

Tadashi Shiozawa, Hiromi Imamura, Stephen Briss, & Shuji Ozeki

Abstract Unavailable

CALL: Its Scope and Limits

Frank Berberich

現在、CALLはまだ一般に使われているとは言えません。その理由はCALLのための基礎的な分類がないためです。この論文では、「空間」と「次元」との隠喩を用いて、CALLについての分類を試みたものです。その結論としては、現在のCALLは「マルチメディア」に対する開発・実験に関しては十分になされていますが、その多元的な応用については不十分なので、あまり役だっているとは言えません。

Section Four

Classrooms and Culture

Intercultural Communication as Interpersonal Communication

Kensaku Yoshida

Abstract unavailable

Clasroom Cultures: East Meets West

Dominic Cogan

外国人教師が日本の英語教育の現場に立つということは、教室というコンテクストにおいて西洋文化と日本文化が出会うことを意味する。当研究はこのような出会いの場において、円滑な授業運営の妨げとなりがちな「教育の理念と実践にまつわる西洋文化（特に英語圏の文化）と日本文化の違い」について考察する。まず「文化とは何か？」という根本的な問について考察した後、「沈黙の果たす役割」や「表現の率直さ」などに注目しながら、西洋と日本のコミュニケーションスタイルの違いを検証する。また、「学ぶことは楽しくあるべきだ。」という西洋的な考え方と「学ぶためには努力が必要だ。」という東洋的な考え方を比較するなど、「教えること」や「学ぶこと」に関する東西の考え方の違いについても考察する。

更に、当研究は授業運営における「教師の役割」「生徒の役割」に関する東西の考え方の違いにも言及し、欧米で用いられている各種の教授法を日本の教育現場に導入する必要性について考察する。また、西洋では授業中の教師と生徒の対話が奨励されるが、日本では教師の質問に答える際に、生徒がその答えについて近くの席の生徒と相談するような場面がよく見受けられるなど、教室内で起こる対話の特徴の違いなども分析する。

最後に、当研究はこのような文化のギャップを埋めて円滑な授業運営を行うために、外国人教師が導入することができるストラテジーを紹介する。

Laying Down the Law: Teachers' Use of Rules

Gregory Bornmann

教師たちは教室の中での役割の根本的な曖昧さに絶えず直面している。一方では教師は客観的であることを期待され、すべての生徒を平等に、そしてえこひいき無しに見なければならないのである。他方、教師は生徒一人一人の特性について知り、それに対応しなければならないように期待されるのである。法学の理論によると、この根本的な曖昧さについては「ルール」と「スタンダード」との絶え間ない対立として現われるとしている。それぞれのモデルには長所と短所がある。ルールの下では、教師は客観的であり、公正であるよう要求されるのであり、スタンダードの下では教師は、臨機応変で、親切であるよう要求されるのである。教師と生徒が異なった文化を持つときに、これらの争点は、特別に重要な事柄として現われるのである。

Student Behaviour: Whose Norms?

Stephen M. Ryan

この論文のテーマは、日本人学生が外国人の先生から言語を学ぶ際に、先生が学生の行動を判断するとき、自分の基準と日本人の基準とどちらを使った方がいいですか。

最初は、今までのいろいろな研究を紹介して、国によって教室での学生の行動様式の基準が変わると言うことを証明します。この状態に対して大勢の外国人教師が次のように言っています、「学生は、英語を勉強するために教室に来ているので、アメリカ（又はイギリス、カナダ）の行動様式の基準を使った方がいいです。」このような考え方は単純すぎます。

この考え方の四つの正当化を検証します。その正当化が全然正しくないとは言いませんが、場合によっては正当化の価値が違いますし、問題なしに正当化を使える場合は珍しいです。

最後に、外国人教師が自分の状況を再検討し、この問題を今までより良く考えることを要望します。

What Makes a Good Language Lesson?

Stephen M. Ryan

学習者の意見の世論調査の結果を発表します。質問は『あなたが今まで受けた英語の授業の中で、一番よかった授業について書いてください。』この質問をいろいろな学校の生徒や学生に聞きました。

どんな年齢の学習者、どんな学校の生徒や学生においても、調査の返事が驚くほど似ています。この論文では、全員の答え集めた表を発表します。その後、各学校ごとの特徴を説明します。

この調査は大きな研究プロジェクトの一部です。これから、言語教師に同じような質問を聞きます。

Learning Styles of Japanese students

Naoko Ozeki

本稿は日本人学生の学習スタイルを分析するために作成された自己申請方式のアンケートの結果を検証する。

アンケートはアメリカ及び日本に住む７８人の日本人学生に実施された。その結果は次のように要約できる。

第一に、日本人学生は多様な学習スタイルを持つこと。又、視覚、聴覚、動作、触覚、個人による学習スタイルに比べ、グループによる学習を好まないこと。第二に、知覚学習スタイルは個人が置かれている環境により変化することが可能らしいこと。しかしながら、個人、又は、グループによる学習スタイルの好みを修整するのは難しそうなこと。第三に、学習スタイルとTOEFLの点数やアメリカでの滞在年数などの個人の変数とは統計学的に関係があること。このような結果を踏まえて、本稿では、学習スタイルと教授スタイルは適合させるべきか否かの視点から日本人学生のための英語教育について提言をする。

A Longitudinal Study on JSL Learners' Nonverbal Behavior

Yutaka Ikeda & Tomoko Ikeda

Nonverbal behavior is an integral part of human interaction. In intercultural encounters where interactants do not share interpretation rules of nonverbal codes, the likelihood of communication problems becomes greater. This paper will

investigate: (1) the role of head nods and gaze direction in conversations in Japanese; (2) changes in JSL learners' nonverbal behavior as their verbal competence increases over time. Videotaped conversations were transcribed, and head nods and gaze direction were coded on the "Verbal/Nonverbal Text." Nonverbal cues were analyzed in relation to the nature of verbal messages: substantial utterance (SU) and aizuchi (backchanneling)-like utterance (AU). Results indicate: (1) both Japanese and JSL learners tend to gaze toward the other while one is engaged in AU and gaze away at the beginning of one's SU and start looking again toward its end; (2) head nods often accompany AU and some learners' use of AU and head nods increased as their verbal proficiency improved.

Japanese Students Non-verbal Responses

Ian Nakamura

日本にいる多くの教師が、教師が質問しても生徒は沈黙するばかりという実情に直面する。この研究は、特に、異なる文化背景を持つ教師と生徒が直面するこういった状況を検策するものである。生徒が言語外に表現している事象を綿密に観察することで、生徒の体験実態、教師の対応法を知る一つの手段が得られる。生徒が喋るのをためらっていても、言語外の手がかりがあるのである。筆者は、教師・生徒間の会話収録ビデオを観察した日本人協力者の意見をもとに、特有の動作や意味の可能性を検証した。ここに、生徒の非言応答に対する教師対応の可能性が提供される。研究途上にあるこの研究課題の一つは、生徒の沈黙の間を短くし、言語による応答を促進させることにある。教師の効果的な対応にあり、また生徒の自己認識を促すことによりその可能性を探る。

Language, Social Meaning, and Social Change: The Challenge for Teachers

Sandra J. Savignon

Abstract Unavailable

Section Five

Bilingualism and Children

The Nuture and Nature of Bilingual Acquisition

Laurel Kamada

要旨　本稿では、バイリンガルの発達のプロセスに影響を及ぼす諸要因を分析する。まず、バイリンガルの発達に関して一般に挙げられている、神経生物学的、環境要因的な解釈から論じ、さらに、２言語を同時に習得しているある子供の具体例を取り上げる。始めに、神経生物学的な見地から、言語活動に携わる能の写真映像を基に、言語学習への示唆が与えられる。そして、１７のバイリンガル家族から集めた２９の事例の分析を通して、バイリンガルの言語習得を検証する。この分析では、バイリンガルの言語習得が、家庭や海外の居住地での言語関係のような環境要因だけでなく、第１言語の発達の早さや性別の影響といったような先天的要因とも重要な関係があることが明らかにされた。そして最後に、中国語と日本語の統語能力の３才までの同時習得に関する詳細なケース・スタディーによって、言語習得が概念から始まり、年少者の脳が成人の脳よりもアクティブに生成をおこなう、という神経生物学的な示唆を立証する。また、このケース・スタディーにより、ケア・テイカーが良い言語習得テクニックを用いることがよい影響を与える、ということをも立証する。

Early English Acquisition in the EFL Situation

Soo-Wong Ahn

１、はじめに

小学校での早期の英語教育開始を支持する主張の根拠となっているのは、ChomskyによるLAD理論および、Wilder Penfield（1953, 1959）やLenneberg（1967）による臨界期仮説である。本稿の目的は、これらの理論をEFL（外国語としての英語）の場合に応用することに何か重要な誤りがあるかどうかを調べ、また、この状況にいる多くの学者や言語政策

立案者を混乱させている要因が何なのかを調べることである。混乱を取り除くために、以下の問に答えていく。

1）子供はEFLの場合でも、臨界期仮説が唱えるように言語能力を習得するのか

2）外国語学習者が何年も学習しても目標言語を話せないのは年令のせいなのか、それともほかに重要な要因があるのか

3) ESL(第二言語としての英語)の状況での早期英語習得をEFLの状況の年少学習者にそのままあてはめることはできるのか

本稿では、「言語習得装置（LAD）」、「言語入力（Input）」、「言語ニーズ（Language Needs）」という、言語習得のための3条件を提示して、上記の問に答えてみようと思う。

Age Factors and Language Proficiency in Child SLA

Kazuo Yumoto

ホノルル在住の日本人児童108人を対象に英語のテスト（LAS）とその日本語訳のテストを実施し、語学力と年齢要因との関連性に関して調査した。本報告はLASの総得点とアンケートの各項目の変数との相関性を分析した結果である。アンケートの調査項目は学年、年齢、渡航年齢、兄弟・姉妹の有無、子供の語学力に対する親の評価、学校における言語の使用状況、家庭における言語の使用状況等に関する33項目である。英語の語学力はLASの総得点から判断し、その分析結果は次の通りである。英語の語学力と有意に相関する変数は、渡航年齢と滞在期間であった（r ＝－．４０／r ＝．４７ ：p ＜．００１）。すなわち、総体的に渡航年齢が早い児童の方が英語のテストの総得点が高く、また、滞在期間と比例した。しかし、若齢渡航年齢層（0歳−3歳、特に0歳渡航年齢児童）の英語の総得点数は大きく拡散していることから判断すると、渡航年齢は英語の語学力の決定的な要因とは断言できず、渡航年齢が早い児童の方が英語力が高いとは必ずしもいえない。

Development of Framework in K-12 Japanese as a Second Language

Yuriko K. Kite, David Nunan, Suzuko Nishihara, Anita Gesling, & Sumiko Shimizu

初等中等レベルの日本語教育におけるフレームワークが開発された。これは日本インターナショナル協議会が文部省の委託研究としておこなった研究調査の一部である。本稿は先ず日本では初めてのフレームワークが、日本語プロジェクトの中からどのように生まれてきたかの背景を述べる。続いて、対象となる学習者について述べ、このフレームワークの真髄である、「基本理念」について4つの観点から明記する。最後に、このフレームワークが、どのように日本語教師にかかわってくるのか、また、広い範囲で使用が可能であるのは、何故かを述べる。

Section Six

In the Classroom

Fluency Development

J.D. Brown

Abstract Unavailable

Learner Development: Three Designs

Yuko Naito, Sonia Yoshitake, Takao Kinugawa, & Morio Hamada

In this colloquium, examples and suggestions were presented to help learners develop. First, Yoshitake, a instructor of EAP, presented activities for students to realize English logical structures. Kinugawa analyzed strategies of advanced learners of Japanese use in compositions and showed how to apply these results in teaching. Lastly, Hamada presented activities so that learners can use their own mistakes as resources without losing eagerness in learning.

Each presentation showed effective ways of learning in the limited curriculum, which would help both learners and teachers in developing themselves.

Desirable Japanese Teachers and Classroom Activities: A survey towards a learner-centered class

Takako Ishida

With the idea of "learner-centered" classrooms, Japanese teachers try to design such a syllabus and classroom activities to go with it. However, if teachers do not pay much attention to their students' real opinions, it is impossible to organize a "learner-centered" classroom. What is an ideal Japanese teacher? What are ideal classroom activities?

From the results of a questionaire which asked these questions of Japanese volunteer-based classes in Yamaquchi, this paper attempts to compare the teachers' and students' opinions. There are, of course, some different opinions. For example, students regard that "teaching with confidence" is an important aspect of a good teacher, but teachers do not. On the other hand, teachers regard that "role play is an effective exercise for students," but students do not.

The results imply that if teachers want a "learner centered" classroom, they need to first analyze their students' opinions about their classes as well as the students' needs in learning Japanese.

Identity and Beliefs in Language Learning

Tim Murphey

教師が選択するアクティビティーを通して、学習者のアイデンティティとビリーフとを教師が概念化し、また、働きかけるための方法に関する研究の経過報告である。心構え、ビリーフ、そしてアイデンティティとは、スキルの発達や行動の変化に大きく影響を与え、また、これらは必然的にそれぞれ結び付いているのである。

まず最初に、アイデンティティとビリーフ、これらの持つ影響、そしてこれらを構成する方法と構成し直す方法について理解するための枠組みを提出する。第二に、さまざまなレベルに直接的に働きかけ、さらに進んだレベルの変化に拡張させ、活性化させる可能性を持つアクティビティーの例をいくつか紹介する。そして最後に、さらに積極的なアイデンティティとビリーフを育成し、助長してやるような可能性のあるパフォーマティブなタスクを探究し、発見するよう、他の教師・研究者にも私は呼びかけたいと思う。

Japanese Language Learning through Structured Group Encounters

Shinichi Hayashi, Yukari Saiki, & Takako Ishida

In this paper, Structured Group Encounters (SGE) is regarded as a teaching approach with Encounter Movement and Humanistic approach (HA). SGE can be categorized as a Communicative Approach since it focuses on communication with meaning and sharing information with others. At the same time, HA also shares these four aspects with SGE: the development of human values, growth in self-awareness and in understanding of others, sensitivity to human feelings and emotions, active student involvement in learning and the way learning takes place.

Using the theory indicated above, the exercise "4/3/2" was carried out at a workshop at the JALT conference in 1995. It required students to talk about a certain topic with his/her partner within a limited time (4 minutes, 3 minutes, 2 minutes, and then 1 minute). According to the opinions and ideas given from the people who participated in the workshop, analysis and implications of the exercise are discussed.

Learner Training: Learner Self- Evaluated Videoing: Preliminary Results

Tim Murphey & Tom Kenny

これは、学習者の会話をビデオに録画することによって、学習者が自分の会話を見て、分析することを可能にするという研究の経過報告である。そしてこの報告は、週一度のビデオ録画を始めてから４週間経った時点で学習者に行なったアンケートと、前期終了時点での学習者のレポート、そして後期半ばに至るまでの我々の観察によるデータに基づくものである。このプロジェクトは１年間の研究費を得ているが、この開始段階での成功により、この研究費の期間の延長と、いずれはこの方法を通常のカリキュラムに組み込むこととを我々は希望している。

この方法そのものが、言語学習の様々な側面において有効であると考えられるため、今回の報告においては、その手順と利点について主に述べることとし、ストラテジーの選択や使用などについての冗長な考察は省くこととする。

The Learning Journal: An Aid to Reinforcement and Evaluation

Sophia Wisener

学習日誌は、多機能で学習者中心の活動であり、学生の記憶維持と教師の評価の助けとなるものである。授業の最後の十分間に、その日の活動を思い出し記録することによって、学生は各々の経験とその目的を達成するために使った言葉を記憶する。また彼等は問題や質問を、また授業から学んだ見識を提示するかもしれない。さらに、定期的に書くことの蓄積によって、それが学生の為の補足的な参考書の役目を果たすことになる。日誌を定期的に点検することによって、教師は学生の進歩を評価することができ、その中で示された問題を処理することができる。またその授業が効果的であるかどうかを判断することも可能である。もしも学習の要点が終始抜けていたり、間違って記録されていた場合には、もともとの授業が再考されたり、再検討され、その部分の解明が必要となるであろう。この日誌は様々な方法で行うことができ、またその重点の置き具合もまちまちである。しかしながら、それが各々の授業計画の一部としてその要目に位置付けられた時、それは効果的な評価の手段であり、また学習の補強をするもので、全ての関係者に益をもたらすものである。

Using Texts to Understand Texts

Steven Brown

私たちが読むとき、さまざまな知識をその主題と結びつける。私たちは教室ではこのように関係づけようとしません。これは whole-text prereading tasksとspoken prereading tasksを比べその効果を探るパイロット研究のリポートです。結果はさまざまですが、prereadingとしてのreading は伝統的なprereadingディスカッションと同じくらい効果的であり、どのように我々が実際に読むかということにもっと近づくことを示唆している。

Vocabulary and Reading: Teaching and Testing

David Beglar & Alan Hunt

学習者の語彙能力強化は「リーディング」能力を習得するためには不可欠である。言語学習・教授と同様、効率よいアプローチにより語彙指導は改善しえる。ネイション（Nation）の語彙レベルテスト（Vocabulary Level Tests）のような語彙診断テストを行うことにより、教師はどの単語が今後の学習において必要であるかを決定することができる。学習者の語彙能力強化の訓練では、彼らが流暢に読めるようになる多読プログラム（extensive reading program）と新出単語、連想、連語の直接教授の両方を行うべきである。最後に、効果なリーディングでは、学習者はそれらの単語の意味、連想、連語に素早くむすびつけ、認識することが必要である。

Research on Vocabulary Retention

Guy Kellogg

最近の研究では、新しい単語の習得の際の速度、方法、及び、その手続きに影響を与える多くの要因に焦点が当てられている。本研究は、授業における新しい単語の習得の際に３種の手掛かり（日本語リスト、英語リスト、及び、英和辞書の使用）が保持に与える影響を１８９人の大学生を対象として調べたものである。実験1（S１）では、２４３語よりなるテキスト中の２０個の標的語の語彙の再認試験を授業終了直後に行なった。1要因の分散分析の結果、有意差が示された。下位検定を行なったところ、「日本語リスト」群、及び「辞書使用」群の成績がともに統制群よりも優位に高かった。この結果は、実験に参加した母集団に対しては、授業中の英和辞典や日本語の使用が、授業終了直後の語彙再認に有利であると示唆している。実験2（S2）では、1週間後の標的語の保持量について調べたが、習得の際の手掛かりによる再認成績の違いは見出せなかった。

Adapting the Shared Inquiry Method to the Japanese Classroom

Carol Browing, Jerald Halvorsen, & Denis Ahlquist

日本における英語授業、文学授業での「シェアード・インクアイアリー・メソッド（"Shared Inquiry Method"）」（米国イリノイシカゴ市Great Books Foundation開発）の利用について、筆者らが過去年間にわたって実施してきた研究をまとめたもの。本研究の目的は1）「シェアード・インクアイアリー・メソッド」について説明すること、2）文部省が提示した英語教育改革に見合うメソッドとして「シェアード、インクアイアリー・メソッド」を提案、本メソッドを英語授業、文学授業に利用することの適切さについて言及すること、3）本研究の結果と筆者らのこれまでの経験を踏まえて、日本における英語授業、文学授業での「シェアード・インクアイアリー・メソッド」利用の具体的方法を提示すること、の3点にある。

Literature: Oral English? or Both

Linda Donan

大学によっては、英語教育をオーラル・イングリッシュと文学とに分け、文学の方を日本人英語教師が、そしてオーラル・イングリッシュの方を外国人教師が担当する形をとる所が見られる。（そこには、ある種の職種間の優劣が暗示されているようでもある。）しかし、著者は外国人教師が文学の題材をテキストに使いつつオーラル・イングリッシュを教えると-英語専攻の学生からは特に-良い評価や反応が得られる事を見つけ出した。この小論では、ディスカッションや会話の練習で、学生に積極的に話をさせるにはどうしたら良いか、その方法について論ずる。

Adding "Magic" to an EFL Reading Program by Using Children's Literature

Linda J. Viswat & Linda C. Rowe

リーディングの教師としての主要な目標は、学生がより多くのものをより良く読みこなせるように動機づけてやることです。この論文では、近年になるまでそのリーディング教材としての価値を殆ど見過ごされてきていた児童文学を取り上げ、その内容の楽しさと理解でき得る入力情報であるが故に、学生に興味を抱かせる可能性を持つこと、それゆえに語学学習を容易なものにすることを論議します。児童図書は、あらゆる年齢のEFL学習者に多くのものを提供します（Appet, 1984；Carr，1984；McGuise, 1985；Meek，1991; Fleikinger, 1994；Thistlewaithe, 1994）。「絵本を多く見れば見るほど、それを幼い子供達の対象にのみ厳しく制限するには、あまりに贅沢すぎるほどの資源であるとの確信を深めざるをえない」（Appet，1984，P．67）。

Reading Activities in the Communicative Classroom

Greogry Strong

読みを教える上での強調点は、生徒が読みを通して何を学ぶかに焦点を当てることから、読みの認識過程へ、また生徒をより良い読手にするためいかに教えるかへ移行してきている。次に挙げる授業は、背景知識の利用、情報の予測、テクスト構造の知識の使用に関する生徒の読みの技術を、いかに伸ばせるかについてを際立たせている。この授業では、オーセンティック・リーディング・テキスト（生のリーディングテキスト）、また大学の教室にふさわしい一連のコミュニカティブ・リーディング・アクティビティーを用いる。

誰が、何を、いつ、どこで、どのくらい、などの捜査法の問題や読み手に情報を要求するものと、解釈や表現レベルでのより高度な水準での問題は区別される。解釈の問題は、原因と結果、概括についての推論を含む。表現レベルでの問題は、読み手に意見を述べさせ、新しい洞察力を引き出す。

この授業でのコミュニカティブ・アクティビティーでは、生徒にそのテクスト内容を理解させ、小さなグループでの討論を促すため、碁盤目、フローチャート、絵文字など視覚によるかぎを利用する。さらに、このアクティビティーは、リーディング・ジグソー（ストーリー再構築）、ミニ・ディベート（小規模な議論）、ロール・プレイ、ライティング・アクティビティーを含む。

Cross-border Peer Journals in EFL

David George

他文化圏で生活する人々と交流する機会のない学生の異文化に対する意識を高めることは容易なことではない。この論文では、日本とタイの大学生の間で交換される異文化間ジャーナル（意見の交換を記録する日記）がどのようなものかを述べ、またこのようなプロジェクトを実施する際に考慮せねばならない重要なポイントを論じる。結果としては、この活動が学生たちの学習を動機づけ、彼／彼女らの英語のライティングを読み、応対してくれる相手が他文化圏にいるという期待とまた目的意識を与え、異文化交流の意識を高めた。

Motivating Students to Write

Midori Kimura, Keiko Kikuchi & Joyce Maeda

本稿では大学レベルで行われた「ライティングの意欲を高める」３つの授業例を紹介する。英語自体に関心の低い一般教養クラスの学生と、英語専攻であるがライティングに対する興味の薄い学生という異なった環境にある対象を取り上げ、アクティビティも、ディクテーション、フリー．ライティング、プロジェクト・ライティングと異なったものを試みている。しかし、３つの事例に共通するのは、発信の対象者を身近なクラスの仲間に設定し作品を互いに公開させることにより、学生は良い作品作りをめざし協力し、ライティングへの意欲が促進させられたことである。アクティビティの具体的な説明と、それらの背後にある第二言語習得のアプローチや理論、教師のコメント、評価方法についても述べる。

Student Publishing: The Value of Controlled Chaos

Brad Visgatis & Tamara Swenson

要約：本稿は、先ず日本のＥＳＬの授業の教室が「生きた」ニュース編集室に変わっていくための理論的根拠を簡単に述べ、次に結果として、初め見られたまとまりのないクラスが転じて出版を終了させるに至った過程を記述するものである。本稿は、1995年度のJALTの学会における筆者らの個人発表をもとに、出版を成功させるために必要な活動や組織づくりについて論じ、かつその作業のための準備手順を概説し、最後にその途上において派生してきた問題点や、筆者らによって発見された解決方法についても触れるものである。ここで述べる活動と提案のすべては、筆者らの指導によって学生が作成した大阪国際女子大学における『Octopus』と大阪女学院短期における

「Peek-a-Boo」と呼ばれる新聞作りの経験をもとにしている。これら新聞を入手したい方はリクエストされたい。まとまりのないクラスにある方向性をもたすことは可能なのである。

Oral History: A new look at an old subject

Barbara Valentine Dunkley

歴史は大学生の生活に大きな影響を及ぼし、言語学習にも貢献している。このプロジェクトで大学生は彼らが選んだ何人かの人に面接を行なった。この面接を通して今世紀の激動の中を生き抜いてきた人々の人生経験を聞き多くのことを学んだ。そして取材した情報をもとにレポートを書いたりスピーチをしたりした。多くの大学生はこのプロジェクトは歴史に直接参加した人々に面接して現代の歴史についてその人たちと話合う初めてのチャンスだったと言っている。このような口述歴史プロジェクトは大学生の生活にとっては重要であるが、しばしばその努力が社会から無視されがちな人々についての意識を高める方法として役に立つと思われる。

Invent Your Own Soap Opera

Julia Dudas & Andrew Wright

クラスで創作した連続した作り話のコミュニティーの人物たちの世界は、年齢や学習者のレベルに関わらず多くの利点を学習者にもたらす。たとえば、動機づけ、４技能の統合、ことばと活動の総合的な経験、豊かで意味があり忘れられない言語の練習、シラバスにあるスキルの練習などである。本文はどのようにクラスでメロドラマの制作が始まり作られていったかということとどのようなアクティビティを含んでいるかについて述べたものである。

Metric Conversion: Acquiring English Rhythm

Margaret Sharkey & Eiko Ushida

EFL学習者の認識と理解度を向上させるには，授業にリズム指導を取り入れることが重要である。韻律強勢理論は、英語のリズム構造を明らかにすると同時に、一連の発話においてリズムが担う役割の重要性を理解する手助けとなるので、本稿の理論的基盤をなす。この理論的視座から、まず、英語と日本語におけるリズムの特性を比較検討し、その後で、両言語におけるリズムの特性の相違がEFL学習者の認識と理解度に与える影響を論ずる。最後に、この理論を実践に応用し、トップダウンアプローチの立場からリズム指導の方法をいくつか提案する。加えて、参考となる教材も提供する。

Allein gegen alle Deutschunterricht in der Großklasse

Alfred Gehrmann

Teacher centered presentation is generally considered the only way of teaching in big classes, whereas a learner centered communicative approach is not considered feasible. This applies even more to language teaching, where the difference between the native speaker's knowledge and the students' command of the language hinder communication. On the other hand, for teaching German as a second foreign language in Japan, new approaches have been tried successfully. The idea is to use the students' didactic competence by having them work in groups of four, not only for practice, but throughout the class. It is possible for instructors to apply available study material to facilitate these groups. The students can be directed to using a wide variety of methods enabling them to gain active understanding of the new language. A combination of group evaluation, homework check, and written testing provides a sufficient basis for individual evaluation of students' ability and progression.

Constructive Methods of Dealing with Large Classes

Thom Simmons, Dawn Yonally, & Edward Haig

本論は、大規模クラスに関する研究を検討し、大小規模の異なるクラスにおける授業方法の条件について述べるものである。ここでは、小規模クラスが常にその機能を充分に発揮できるわけではないこと、学校管理上の物理的障壁が重要課題であることを示している。

大規模クラスでは、教師が、筋道たてた論理性をもって、学生の能力をひきだすために全力を注ぐことが大切だ。多くの教師が各々異なるテクニックを適用して成功を収めているが、これは、大規模な語学クラスという環境で目的を達成するためには、教師のモチベーションが重要であるという主張を裏づけるものである。

本論はおわりに、上記アプローチの一例を詳細に紹介する。これは、E. Haig の開発した「LIFE（Learner-centered，Imagination driven，fluency and Enjoyment oriented）」システムである。

Section Seven

Testing and Evaluation

English Language Entrance Examinations in Japan: Problems and Solutions

J.D. Brown

多くの日本の大学の英語入試問題には大きな問点が四点ある。その問題点を検討し改善方法を提起したい。まず第一に試験問題項目の質についてだが、日本の試験問題はテストに関する専門知識を持たない教師によって作成されることが多いようだ。テスト開発のプロが作成したものでさえ、その設問項目を統計分析してみれば「いい問題」は通常全問中半分から七割にしか満たないとされている。この問題を解決し質の高い試験問題を作成するには、全問題を事前に予備テストにかけ（piloting）、統計学

に基づいた項目分析をした上で適切な問題だけを取捨選択し、入学試験問題として採用することが不可欠である。

第二の問題点は日本の入学試験実施のプロセスがあまりに簡略すぎることである。典型的な手順は次のようなものだろう。1）問題作成、2）試験実施、3）採点、4）合否判定、5）試験問題の公表。専門的な立場から言えば、入学試験の実施には、次のようなステップが必要である（太字が追加事項）。

1）問題の作成

2）予備テストの実施

3）予備テスト結果の統計分析

4）3）の分析結果に基づく問題選択（難易度が受験者層に合致し、受験者の学力差を正確に識別している問題を選ぶ）

5）問題全体の改訂

6）最善のコンディションのもとでの本試験実施

7）信頼性のある方法による採点

8）合否の通知

9）本試験結果の統計分析

10）試験問題の公表、及び報告書の公表。報告書には試験問題開発の方法、基準、信頼性及び妥当性等を含める。

予備テストの実施は適切な試験問題を作成するために特に重要である。入試問題の長い歴史を持つ日本といえども、地理的間隔、時間的間隔、試作問題の本試験への散布（注1 ）を考慮した予備テストが望ましい。

第三の問題点は信頼性の問題である。信頼性とはその試験問題の一貫性（同じ問題を同質の受験者に実施した時、同様の結果が得られるか否か）を問題にするが、現行の入学試験問題の多くがそれを統計的に立証してはいない。試験問題の信頼性は種々の統計的手続き（事前テスト、再テスト、同値信頼性の検定等）を踏まえて提示され、また高められていくべきである。合否判定の信頼性を高めるためには、標準誤差の測定も不可欠である。

第四点は妥当性の問題である。妥当性とはその試験問題が測定すべきものを確かに測定しているか否かという概念であるが、日本の現行の入学試験問題の形式は古いものが多く、世界の趨勢からかけ離れていると言わざるをえない。問題項目も文部省新学習指導要領中・高等学校英語の基準に合致していないものが多い。試験の妥当性もまた内容的妥当性、構成概念妥当性、基準関連妥当性といった統計手法を用いて明示されなければならないのである。妥当性も信頼性同様できるだけ高めなければならない（注2）。

入試改善についてはさらに三点を提案する。まず入学試験に関する情報をオープンにするために、アメリカのフェア・テストと呼ばれる機関（公正な試験実施を監視する民間団体）を日本にも設立すること。次にテスト開発の科学的専門知識を持った専門家の育成と、組織的にテストの見直しに取り組む姿勢。第三にこの分野での研究の促進である。研究のテーマとしては次のようなものが挙げられよう。

1．問題項目の難易度は適切か、受験者の学力差を正確に識別しているかどうか。項目の選択にはどのような統計分析を用いればよいか。試験全体の質と妥当性を高めるにはどのような項目を選択すべきか。

2．試験問題の開発にはどのような手順と見直しが必要か。上記10のステップは開発に必要十分か。問題項目の見直しにより信頼性と妥当性はどのように改善されるか。

3．個々の試験の基準はどこにおくのか。それは大学により、あるいは実施年度によりどのように変化するか。

4. これらの試験に果たして信頼性はあるのか。

5．これらの試験における合否決定に信頼性はあるのか（標準測定誤差はどの位か、それはどのように使われるのか。合格判定ライン周辺の受験者の最終的合否決定の基準は何か）。

6．これらの試験問題に内容的妥当性、構成概念妥当性、基準関連妥当性、社会的妥当性等の妥当性はあるのか。

7．合否決定における妥当性はどこにあるか（試験得点以外の情報評価の有無等）。合格基準得点の決定方法の妥当性。

8. 比較的安価で採点の容易な問題形式を取っているのに受験料が高額なのはなぜか。コミュニカティブな聴解や会話テストの開発に資金投資できない理由。

9．試験によってどのような波及効果が起こっているか。英語教育に対してどのような影響が見られるか。

上記のような点を検討することで、入学試験の質を変えていくことができ、ひいては日本の英語教育の質も高めることができるのではないだろうか。このような検討を怠ることは倫理的にも、また専門的にも許されることではない。なぜなら日本の入学試験は学生の将来を決定づけるほどの重要な影響を及ぼすものであるからである。

注1　：地理的間隔とは試験実施場所を示す、例えば東京だけでなく全国の複数の場所で実施すること、時間的間隔とは、同一問題項目を異なる年にわたって実施し検討すること、本試験への散布とは、実験的に試作試験項目を本試験に混入させるが、採点などの対象にはしないこと。

注2　：試験得点以外の受験生に関する情報（成績・内申書など）を考慮するなど、妥当性を高めるために使える、妥当性測定のための方法は種々あるが、ここでは省略する。

Reliability and a Learner Style Questionnare

Dale T. Griffee

クラスルーム・リサーチが、昨今注目される中、多くの研究者達は信頼のおけるアチーブメントテスト、調査、学習方法アンケートなどの調査媒体を必要としている。このような必要性が叫ばれるにもかかわらず、クラスルーム・リサーチを手がける研究者達は、相変わらず信頼性を示す数字を明記することなく、欠陥のあるリサーチ報告をしているのが現状である。本稿はこの信頼性の説明と計算方法について述べたものである。信頼性の計算方法を説明するに当たっては、ある学習方法アンケートを使用し、信頼性係数を使う事により、どのようにこの学習方法アンケートを改善するか説明した.

Does it Work? Evaluating Language Learning Tasks

Rod Ellis

教材評価に関して発表された文献（e.g. Cunninsgworth 1984; Breen and Candlin 1987; Sklerso 1991; McDonough and Shaw 1993)をざっと見てみると、完全にと言って良いほど、予測的な評価であると言うことが分かる。つまり、市販の教材がある所有のグループにとってふさわしいかどうかを見定めるためにはどのようにその教材の評価を行なえば良いか、というアドバイスを教師に与えているのである。この種の評価は、教材がある特定の教育コンテクストで有効そうかどうかを決定しようとする、という意味で「予測的」である。このような評価は貴重ではあるが、本稿では論じようとしているものではない。

代りに本稿で考察していくのは、指導教材の回顧的評価方法である。つまり、教師が、自分が実際に使ってきた教材の「有効性」を決定できるようにするにはどうすればよいか、を述べていくことにする。教師は、自分が選んだり作ったりした教材が「有効」なものかどうかをしばしば自問しているものではあるが、それに対する答えは概して、日々の使用体験に照らしあわせた、漠然とした印象に基づくものである。体系的で原理に基づいた回顧的評価というのはほとんど試みられていない。

この理由で明らかなものとして、一つには、一揃いの教材（例えば教科書）の使用を体系的に評価することが極めて大変であるということが挙げられる。とりわけ、学習者がその教材を使用したことにより学習したのは何であるかということを知ろうとすれば、膨大な作業になる。とはいうものの、ある特定の教授用タスクの「有効性」に焦点を当てた、マイクロレベルでの回顧的評価なら、より容易に行えるかも知れない。そこで本稿は、タスク評価に最も重点をおくことにする。

Communicative Oral Testing

Marion Delarche & Nicholas Marshall

大学のクラスにおいては、コミュニカティブな授業が広く普及するようになってきましたが、既成のテストにはこの傾向が反映されていないと指摘されています。

この論文では、コミュニカティブな方法で外国語を学んでいるクラスに、より合うテストの形式を考察しています。まずはじめに、テストそのものから見直しをしその上で、口頭試験が評価規準として、取り上げられるべきものであると、提案しています。次に、現在の風潮として、ペーパーテストによる採点をベースとする評価よりも、むしろ運用能力をベースとした評価が規準として、より着目されていることを示唆しています。このことは、ETSのスピークテストやACTELのオーラル・インタビュー、そして、UCLESの口頭試験などが普及していることからもわかることです。そして、この論文では、望ましいコミュニカティブな口頭試験の形式を提案し、筆者が大学で学生に行ったテスト例を提供しています。

Evaluation of Gestures in Non-verbal Communication

Barry O'Sullivan

本論は目標言語文化の非言語的なコミュニケーションのチャネルを操作する学習者の能力の評価に関して言語教師・評価者が直面するジレンマを扱うものである。非言語的チャネルの重要性を認めながらも、今日まで公にされているテストに内在する妥当性の欠如は、そもそもそういうテストが、研究目的でさえも開発可能であるのか、開発すべきなのかに関して重大な疑問を投げかけるものと見なし得る。本論は、現時点ではテスト作成に携わるには非言語的チャネルに関する充分な知識を欠いており、コミュニケーション能力のモデルに非言語的チャネルに関する充分な知識を欠いており、　コミュニケーションの側面を含めるには、さらに膨大な研究が必要であると結論づける。

Our Experiments in Oral Communication Tests

Shuichi Yonezawa

オーラル・コミュニケーションA、B、Cの授業が高校に導入されて、英語教師たちは生徒のオーラル・コミュニケーション能力をどう評価していくべきか思案している。私たちの行なってきた実験的なオーラル・コミュニケーション・テストは、ほんの小さな一歩に過ぎない。

ＡＥＴとわたしは、学校の期末考査に合わせて、3種類のテストを実施してきた。1回目は、ビデオに生徒のすべてのコミュニケーション活動を録画して、後でそれを見て評価するという方法をとったので、時間がかかり過ぎた。2回目、3回目はそれを克服するためにテープに一斉録音するという方法にしたので、時間の問題は解決したが、コミュニケーションとして不自然であった。相手がいないこと、相互行為性がないこと、言語によらない伝達活動が測れないこと、も改善すべき点としてあげられる。客観性はどのテストでも得られたと考えているが、さらに良い方法を模索していかなければならない。

Simultations: A Tool for Testing "Virtual Reality" in the Language Classroom

Randall S. Davis

言語を指導する先生のまず第一の責任の一つは、実際に運用されている会話能力を実際に測定する評価方法を考えて行動に移すことであります。

これを実現するため、多くの研究者と実際に指導している先生もシュミレーションが効果あることを提案し、通常の授業形態を、言語の習得能力がより現実的な状況のもとで評価される本物の学習環境に置き換える努力をしてきました。

こうした状況の中、私はシュミレーションの理論的解釈と特有の効果について概論を述べ、かつ、日本の東京のある専門学校でビジネス英語の指導で実験したところのこうした一つの言語習得の評価の基準についても説明いたします。

さらに、受講者に対して行われたアンケート結果にもとづき、シュミレーションの有効性と向上を目的とした診断上のフィードバックをするに際しての評価技術がどうであったかを報告し、この研究の成果について簡単にディスカッションを進め、まとめたいと思います。

Evaluation of Listening-Focused Classes

Yoshinobu Niwa & Kazuo Iwata

岩田は１９９４年に愛知学院にて採用された新カリキュラムの採用理由および詳細を説明する。特に1年生に対し日本人教師はリスニング、外国人教師はコミュニケーションを担当することについて、アンケートでこれに対する学生の反応を調査した。これにより日本人教師によるリスニングの必要は分かったが、同時に、日本人教師と外国人教師という問題が浮かび上がった。丹羽はリスニングクラスを担当した一人で、トップダウン方法のリスニングを行い一応の成功を収めた。低能力の学生が高能力の学生よりも　進歩は大きかったという興味ある結果を得た。詳細を統計的に報告。

Interpreting Teacher and Course Evaluations

T.R. Honkomp

250名以上の大学生に1年生用の英語の授業を1年間受けての教師と授業に対する評価をしてもらった。評価用紙には10の質問を用意し、その内容は、教師の人柄からカリキュラム全体の中でのその科目の適切さにまで渡った。質問は例えば次のようなものである。

1）この科目は興味をそそられ、熱中させられ、刺激のあるものですか。

学生には10の質問に「良くない」から「大変良い」までの尺度で答えてもらった。10の質問に加えてコメントも書いてもらった。評価の質問用紙の説明は、日本語と英語両方で与え、答はどちらの言語でも良しとした。評価の結果の簡単な統計的分析を示し、学生のコメントで洞察力に富むものを取り上げて論じる。この種の学生からのフィードバックは教師が日々学生達に接する際にどうしたら良いかヒントを与えてくれる貴重な情報源となりうる。

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